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ABSTRACT

This handbook provides guidelines and practical ideas for community volunteer teachers of English as a Second Language (ESL) as they prepare to teach. It addresses common classroom issues and offers instructional approaches and techniques based on established principles of language learning. Chapter topics include the following: cross-cultural communication; establishing a program based on student needs and attainable goals; basic principles of second language learning; specific techniques and activities for teaching listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills; demonstrating grammatical constructions; improving pronunciation; games and activities; planning various lesson types; additional techniques useful for teaching intermediate and advanced students; and instructional materials selection. An annotated bibliography cites core texts (12), supplemental texts (6), and resource books (3). A listing of the names and addresses of 13 ESL publishers is appended. (MSE)

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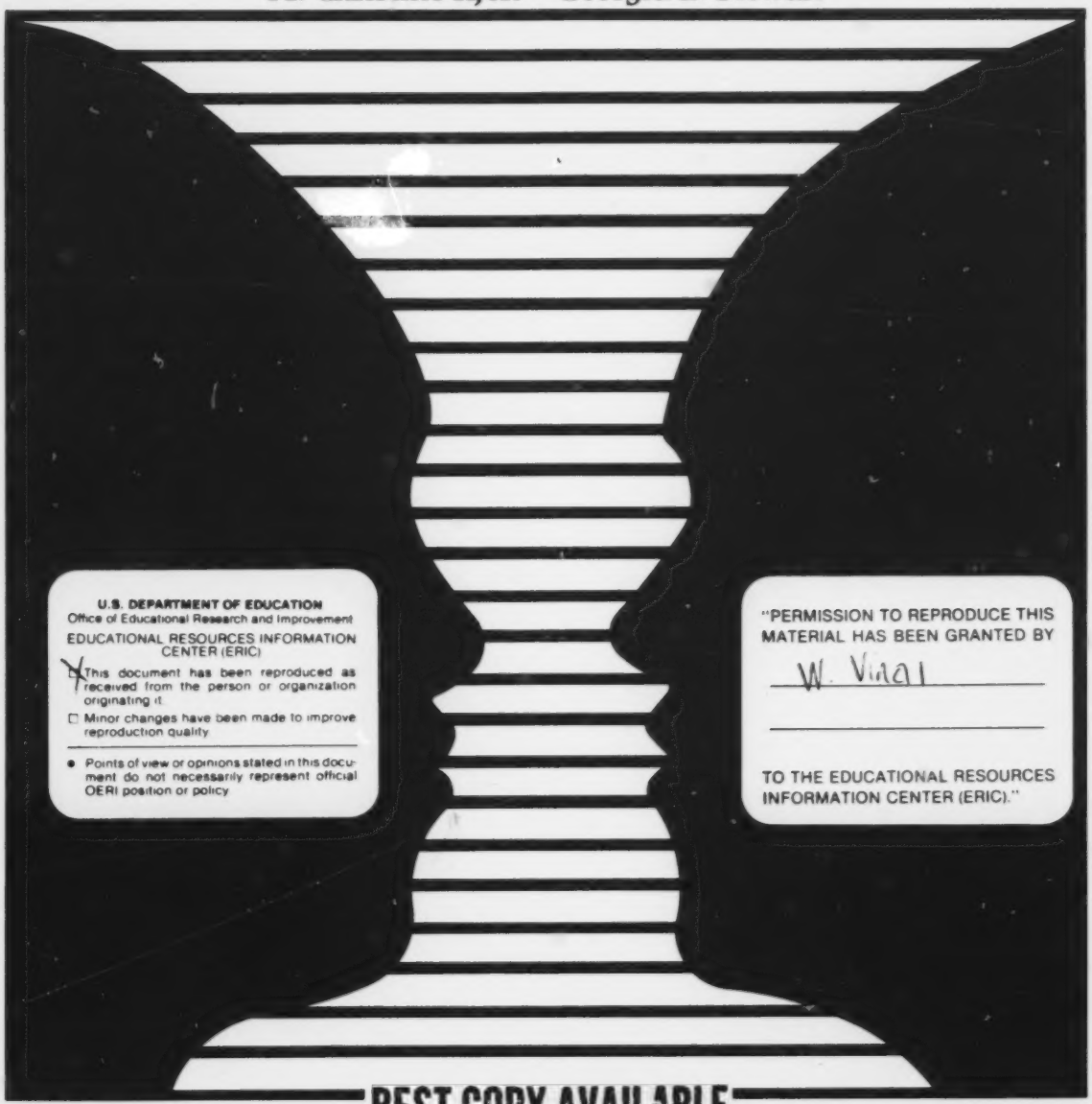
TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

A Guide for the Volunteer Teacher

M. Christine Hjelt • Georgia E. Stewart



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Teaching English as a Second Language:
A Guide for the Volunteer Teacher

M. Christine Hjelt
Georgia E. Stewart

National Association for Foreign Student Affairs
1986

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FOREWORD

This publication began as a revision of two works published by NAFSA in 1973, Guide for the Volunteer English Teacher and Introduction for Volunteer Teachers of English as a Second Language. The first publication provided a basic grounding in ESL teaching techniques, and the second focused on running a volunteer English teaching program. By the early 1980s, it was clear that both the state of the art of teaching English as a second or foreign language and the development of community services for foreign students and their dependents had changed sufficiently to warrant a fresh look at the subject.

In spring 1985, with support from the U.S. Information Agency, NAFSA's Field Service Steering Committee published an open call for authors who felt they could provide the field with such a new perspective. From many responses, a proposal submitted by M. Christine Hjelt and Georgia E. Stewart was selected. Hjelt and Stewart suggested that new developments in linguistic theory and language pedagogy meant not only that an "update" was needed, but that it was time for a thorough reconsideration of the role of the volunteer in providing language instruction.

To assist Hjelt and Stewart in approaching this enormous task, the Field Service Steering Committee asked four individuals to serve as an informal editorial board. They were Patricia Byrd (Georgia State University), Janet Constantinides (University of Wyoming), and Jean Griswold and Joy Reid (both of Colorado State University). These individuals brought together a wealth of experience in ESL and community services and represented the collective knowledge of professionals in the field.

What happened in the course of work on the publication is living proof that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. Authors and editorial board members shared knowledge and expertise, and their collaboration produced the fine-tuned volume you are reading. The final product provides essential information on teaching methods and program development. It also offers to both the professional and the volunteer ESL teacher a new basis for considering how their respective roles can complement and enrich each other's practice.

Mary Peterson
Director, Field Service
NAFSA

INTRODUCTION

Most U.S. colleges and universities make available to foreign students English language training that is intended to bring them to a level of proficiency required by their academic programs. The spouses and dependents of these foreign students, on the other hand, often arrive in the United States with very limited English capability--sometimes none at all.

Although dependents sometimes do enter university English as a Second Language (ESL) programs, most frequently they do not. Some spouses are reluctant to compete in a university program, but usually the reason is money. Higher education in the United States is very expensive, and particularly so for people from other countries. By the time foreign students have made financial arrangements to enter a U.S. university and allocated enough money to cover the related costs of transportation to the United States, clothing, food, and housing, they are fortunate if they have enough resources left to bring the rest of the family to the United States. In fact, many foreign students must leave their families at home while they pursue their education in the United States. Even if the family is able to accompany the student, generally there is not enough money to pay for English language training for the spouse.

A number of years ago, Motoko Lee, a sociology professor at Iowa State University, did a national study to assess the needs of foreign students from developing nations who were studying in academic degree programs at colleges and universities in the United States.* There were several questions in the survey about the student's family life in the United States. Foreign students were asked to indicate the "importance" of the following needs:

1. Finding enough activities for the spouse

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*Motoko Lee, Needs of Foreign Students from Developing Nations at U.S. Colleges and Universities (Washington, D.C.: National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1972), p. 57.

2. English language training for the spouse at a reasonable cost
3. Appropriate educational opportunities for the spouse
4. Social activities that include children
5. Finding appropriate child care
6. Finding appropriate educational opportunities for children
7. Getting to know U.S. neighbors

In all seven categories, most students ranked all of these needs as "very important"--the highest rank on the scale.

The one basic skill required to meet all these needs is the ability to communicate in English. Unfortunately, the sad fact is that few opportunities exist for "English language training for the spouse at a reasonable cost." The programs that the foreign students themselves are enrolled in generally cost so much that spouses and family members are prohibited from enrolling. In addition, these programs are designed to prepare students for academic study. Private tutors are also expensive. That is where community volunteers can help--as volunteer ESL teachers.

Volunteer teachers help these dependents because successful communication opens many doors. Students will be learning English while (1) acquiring survival skills for operating in the community, (2) becoming acquainted with aspects of American life, (3) meeting new people, both foreign and American, and (one hopes) (4) having fun. These social benefits should not be underestimated. Because of the setting and the nature of the instruction, ESL classes taught by volunteers can be intimate and non-threatening--features that enhance the effectiveness of teaching in any setting.

There are many benefits for volunteer teachers as well. They experience the satisfaction of knowing they have significantly improved the foreign visitors' chances of having a meaningful sojourn in the United States. In addition, their contact with these students permits them to acquire increased knowledge and understanding of other countries and cultures.

Although the teaching of English as a second language is a highly specialized field, community volunteers can develop adequate programs

and provide instruction that will help students improve their English competence. To do this, volunteers need more resources than their own intellectual capability and their good will. They also need the following:

1. Some guidelines for programs and specific teaching techniques from ESL professionals
2. An interest in and sensitivity to people from other cultures
3. A good grasp of standard English

This handbook is designed to provide guidelines for community volunteer teachers as they prepare to enter the classroom. There are many volunteer teachers who have professional ESL training. This volume is not intended for them; rather, it is for the volunteer with no prior experience or training in the field. Some information contained here is specific and technical--language learning techniques, materials selection, and so forth. Other parts are more general or informational--for example, second language acquisition and the importance of understanding cultural differences when teaching a second language. The materials in this book are based on standard well-established principles of language learning. It is hoped that volunteers will adapt them to their individual situations in order to achieve maximum results.

I. CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Cross-cultural communication or intercultural communication refers to all interaction between people of different cultures. People from different cultures exhibit different ways of behaving when they are communicating with other individuals. For example, when you and I talk to each other, we operate with certain behavior that is specific to our own culture, and which we both understand. To begin with, we understand the meaning of the words we speak to each other. But in addition to that--and equally important--we know just how close we can stand to each other in order not to cause discomfort, how much eye contact is acceptable, when it would be appropriate to touch the other person, whether the situation calls for humor, and so forth. These aspects of behavior "communicate" to another person just as much as words do.

In one part of the world, the messages communicated by facial expressions, body language (posture), proximity, touching, and eye movements are different from what they are in another part of the world. This non-verbal communication expresses just as much as verbal language does, if not more. Develop a mental image of students from the People's Republic of China engaged in conversation with each other and then imagine a similar group of Italians. Sounds, dress, posture, gesture--all will be different.

Cultural differences extend beyond language and nonverbal communication to perceptions and expectations. Most of us have stereotypical concepts of what other countries are like, and we even assume that other people share our values and patterns of thought. This is not so. We are the product of historical and social influences that have forged our particular way of life. In the same way, your students bring with them the values and attitudes of their own cultures.

Few foreigners are fully prepared for what they encounter upon arrival in the United States. We must remember that it is tremendously difficult for them to anticipate the cultural differences they will encounter. A good illustration can be drawn from the

education systems of various cultures. In some places, teachers are the ultimate authority and students do not participate in class discussions. Students from such cultures may find it difficult to speak up in the relaxed environment of most U.S. classrooms. In other areas of the world, students are accustomed to negotiating or bargaining for everything, and will even approach their teachers about grades and examinations.

Your understanding of cultural differences, and your sensitivity to them, will be just as important to your students as the spoken language that you teach. As you are teaching students how to listen to "words," you will also be teaching them to read non-verbal signs to ascertain meaning. Without these skills, their time in the United States could be a continual struggle for understanding.

You already have some skills that will help you be effective in the cross-cultural setting. Your interest in the students' cultures alone will encourage your students to use English as they share with you experiences from their own lives.

You cannot possibly know all the modes of behavior that transmit messages of all the cultures of the world, although tools such as the "CulturGrams"* produced by Brigham Young University can provide valuable background information for any teacher. The important point is the recognition that different sets of behavior exist and that they affect students' learning of English and their adaptation to American life. You can incorporate in your ESL sessions discussions that will teach students how to look for cultural differences between their culture and U.S. culture. In this process, teachers convey the message that they are interested in and respectful of these cultural differences. This does not mean, however, that teachers cannot or should not suggest certain adaptations of behavior that will enhance the students' ability to cope successfully in the United States.

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*Available from Brigham Young University, David M. Kennedy Center for International Studies, Publication Services, 280 HRCB, Provo, Utah 84602, telephone (801) 378-6528.

But, students must be reassured that this is not an attempt to "Americanize" them. By valuing your students' cultural heritage, you can help students maintain their cultural identity while modifying some aspects of behavior.

As volunteer language teachers, your goal will be not just to teach English grammar and vocabulary, but to help students make sure they understand what messages they are receiving from others and that they are clearly communicating to others what they intend. The more you know about cross-cultural communication, the better the chance of reaching this goal.*

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*For more information on this subject see Gary Althen, ed., Learning Across Cultures (Washington, D.C. : National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1981). ERIC Document No. ED 208790(M).

II. ESTABLISHING A PROGRAM

Student Needs.

Most of the students involved in your volunteer ESL programs are seeking survival language skills that will enable them to use the bank, post office, and supermarket, or to seek help from a doctor, teacher, or police officer. In addition to language instruction, students need help understanding the cultural differences they are encountering in the United States. Finally, since these students are often isolated and lonely, they look to the class for social interaction and emotional fulfillment.

To meet these needs effectively, classes should be small, informal, and friendly. Although some students may wish to do extra study at home, it should be possible for most students to participate in class sessions without extensive preparation time.

From the first lesson, the teacher must attempt to establish a reassuring and supportive environment not only between teacher and students but also among the students themselves. Celebrating a birthday, sharing a problem, or rejoicing in a happy event are all a part of the learning process, not time-consuming fluff.

Language Assessment.

Your student group will probably be quite heterogeneous. Common areas of difference include age, language, national origin, family size, and educational background. Because of these variations, it is important that the English ability of the students within one class be as similar as possible. Most programs interview students in order to place them in appropriate classes.

To develop an assessment interview appropriate for your program, make a list of what students should be able to do in English after completing the beginning level. For instance, some of the language tasks these students should be able to perform include:

1. Making social introductions and using appropriate greeting and leave-taking

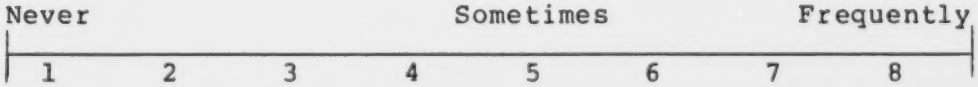
2. Telling where they live including the address and telephone number
3. Understanding and responding to questions about nationality, marital status, occupation, and date and place of birth for themselves and immediate family members
4. Asking and telling the time of day, day of the week, and the date
5. Identifying U.S. coins and paper money using labels such as quarter, dime, and nickel

Notice that these tasks require the ability to respond to short informational questions and common salutations. "How are you today?" "Where do you live?" "Are you married?" "What time is it?" If students stumble through these simple language tasks, they should be placed at the beginning level.

If your first set of questions is easily answered, move on to more complicated language tasks such as describing places or events ("Tell me about your apartment."), requesting and providing information ("When does the bank open?"), and negotiating for goods and services ("Call the doctor and make an appointment for your child.").

Some teachers use a sliding scale to help evaluate the various aspects of the interview. Such a procedure could be used in the following way:

Answer the following questions by marking the appropriate place on the scale.



1. Did I have to repeat and rephrase the questions?
2. Were there pronunciation errors that blocked communication?
3. Did students avoid using basic grammatical structures or did poor grammar cause misunderstanding?
4. Was the student slow and halting in responding to the questions?

5. Were inappropriate or incorrect words used?

Students who consistently fall on the far left of the scale (never) need more complex language tasks to determine their English ability. Keep talking with these students until they are making occasional to frequent errors. Your goal is to place students at a level where the language learning tasks will provide a reasonable challenge.

Generally, it is good to be conservative in your evaluation. It is better for the student to be in a stronger position in the group than to be the one who is always struggling to understand. In larger programs, the student can sometimes be moved to a different level if the initial assessment was not a true reflection of the student's ability.

A placement interview evaluates only oral skills. However, the language-learning techniques used in this handbook, as well as most commercially prepared texts, utilize some written English. Therefore, it is important to determine the students' ability to use written English forms.

If the students' native languages use a Latin-based alphabet, or if they have learned the written form of English before joining the class, you should be able to use all the suggestions in this book.

However, some students, though they are literate in their own languages, are unfamiliar with the alphabet used in English. For instance, Korean, Chinese, and Arabic have significantly different alphabets from English or no alphabet system at all. Students who read and write languages such as these require special instruction in the English writing system. They must learn to read from left to right. They also need to learn the shapes of the letters and how words are separated. The correspondence between letters and the sounds they represent will be particularly difficult for these students. A basic writing and reading workbook, such as the ones described in the annotated bibliography, will help these students.

Students who fall in this category will require a longer time than others to learn English because their languages share little

common ground with English. It takes an English speaker nearly three times as long to learn Chinese or Arabic as it does to learn a more closely related European language. So do not become discouraged if these students move at a slow pace as they are learning English.

A more serious problem is the occasional student who is illiterate in his or her own language. For these students, the teacher has two alternatives. Instruction can be built solely on listening and speaking activities using such techniques as the Total Physical Response method detailed in Chapter IV. Or the teacher can turn to the Laubach Literacy Action* program. This group, which has 600 affiliate programs across the United States, has developed an ESL program that combines oral skills with basic literacy. They provide a 15-to 18-hour training program for volunteer teachers and publish printed instructional materials. The Literacy Action program near you may be able to train you in their approach or suggest another volunteer teacher who could assist illiterate students.

English ability is not the only variable that determines the special needs of students. Other important background information can be obtained from a student fact sheet such as the sample shown below. If necessary, students may ask a spouse or friend to fill in the form for them.

SAMPLE FORM

Name_____Age____Sex_____
Address_____
Telephone number_____
Number of children_____Ages_____
Home country_____Language_____
Level of formal education: None_____Primary_____
Secondary_____Postsecondary_____
How long have you studied English? Never____ One year_____
Two years____More_____
What other foreign languages do you speak?_____
_____
Why do you want to study English?_____
_____
_____

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*For information about a program near you, ask at the public library or write to: Program Specialist-ESOL, Laubach Literacy Action, 1320 Jamesville Ave., Box 131, Syracuse, NY 13210, or telephone (315) 422-9121.

The Class Session.

It is important to remember that volunteers are paid in satisfaction. Teaching English can provide a high level of satisfaction if reasonable goals and limits are set. The following suggestions present the ideal--you will need to be flexible as you plan for your class.

1. Set a maximum class size of 10 students.

2. Establish dates when new students can enter the class. Open enrollment should be avoided if possible; it creates time-consuming problems for the teacher and frustrations for the students.

3. Choose a regular time and place for class sessions. Often a neutral location such as a church or community center is a comfortable site for the volunteer teacher and for students.

4. Control your class preparation time. The easiest way to save on preparation time is to use a textbook. Ideally, each class member should purchase a text. If this is not possible, at least purchase a textbook for yourself. The sequential lessons, suggested learning activities, and appropriate visual materials found in such a book will save you from hours of frustration. (See Chapter XII, Materials Selection.)

5. Do not be afraid to say <u>no.</u> Some volunteers find that students become overly dependent on them as links to American life. One of your goals is to help students be resourceful and independent, so do not feel guilty when you have to set limits on your time and availability.

6. Have a good time. Enjoy your class. Look for the small increments of learning--a flash of insight, a sentence well formed, a new friendship between students, a smile--and know that the investment of your time and talent is making a difference in the lives of your students.

III. SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

There are many different ideas about what actually occurs when people learn a second language. There are even more ways of judging just when someone has acquired that second language. For your students who must live and function in an English-speaking environment beyond the campus, their ability to get their ideas across in English is the only reasonable way to determine whether they have adequately learned the new language.

Margaret Mead understood this concept when she described the strengths of her ability as a linguist.

> I am not a good mimic and I have worked now in many different cultures. I am a very poor speaker of any language, but I always know whose pig is dead, and when I work in a native society, I know what people are talking about and I treat it seriously and I respect them, and this in itself establishes a great deal more rapport, very often, than the correct accent. I have worked with other field workers who were far, far better linguists than I, and the natives kept on saying they couldn't speak the language, although they said I could! Now, if you had a recording it would be proof positive I couldn't, but nobody knew it! You see, we don't need to teach people to speak like natives, you need to make the other people believe they can, so they can talk to them, and then they learn.*

Native English speakers will believe your students speak English if they can give and receive information in English that communicates

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*Quoted by Ruth Crymes, "Current Trends in ESL Instruction," TESOL Newsletter 14 (August 1980), p. 1.

what they intend. That is not to say that grammar and vocabulary are not important. They are. But they are merely tools we use to accomplish communication goals.

The main question for ESL teachers is how to create a classroom environment that promotes communication skills. This is a difficult question because our past language learning experiences are not applicable to this situation. We cannot remember how we learned our first language because we were too young. The English we studied in school refined our skills in a prescriptive way so that we could speak and write properly. The ability to communicate was presumably already in place. And unfortunately for most of us, any foreign language classes we took did not teach us how to actually communicate in the new language.

But nearly all of us have had the experience of teaching a very young child to communicate. Reflecting on this experience may give some clues about how you can be effective volunteer teachers.

Sandra Savignon*, in her book on communicative language teaching, uses an understanding of how children learn their first language to suggest four ways that foreign language teachers can increase learning in the classroom. In the following paragraphs, we have superimposed her suggestions on some observations of what happens when we are teaching young children their first language.

1. Children are forever asking, "What's this?" and adult teachers answer patiently, again and again. "This is your nose." "Those are Mommy's books." We provide new words, but we also let children know they have permission to ask for the names of things in their world.

Let students learn the names and labels of things even though they may not know the grammatical structures to use them properly.

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*Sandra Savignon, Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1983), p. 90.

2. As children begin speaking, we acknowledge their ability to communicate by simply rephrasing the statement. Child: "Go bed." Adult: "You want to go to bed now?" In the same way, we accept the use of "foots" instead of "feet." We do not criticize the children's language ability: we simply model the correct form so that they can continue to learn.

Expect grammatical errors as a part of the learning process. A student who makes an error is exploring language and will learn faster than the silent participant in the corner who is memorizing conjugations.

3. Adult teachers are constantly describing the world to children. "See the pretty flower." "Here comes Daddy." We do not expect an answer, but we know that children are listening. In the same vein, we issue verbal commands. "Touch your nose." "Put the truck in the basket." We do not expect an answer, but we do expect children to carry out the commands. If they do not, we show them what to do.

Provide ample listening experiences but do not expect learners to be able to produce everything they understand.

4. We never expect a child to learn language out of context. When the toddler cries, we may say: "You're hungry, aren't you?" We say it immediately while the child is experiencing the event. We always start with the child's world--at home, in the park, at the grocery store. Through all our teaching, we applaud the smallest gain and accept incomplete learning as a natural occurrence. The environment is relaxed and anxiety-free because we have every confidence that the child will learn to speak.

Provide a meaningful context for all classroom activities that takes into account the feelings and concerns of the students.

Language Learning Principles.

As you plan your English classes, keep the following principles in mind:

1. Students who have positive feelings about English and the people who speak English are more highly motivated to learn the

language. Take time to develop good rapport with your students. Their adjustment to life in the United States will affect the way they learn, and you are an important person in that adjustment.

2. Students cannot learn effectively when they are anxious and upset. Set a tone of cheerful confidence in the classroom. Acknowledge any evidence of learning. Take time to establish a supportive environment among your students.

3. Students learn at different rates. Language aptitude, age, personality, and cultural and linguistic background all affect language-learning. Do not leave slow learners behind. Look for ways in which they can experience success with the language they can use.

4. Use English in the classroom even when you know the students' language(s). Your goal is to enable your students to communicate in English.

5. Teach language as it is really used. Students do not need to know the difference between <u>who</u> and <u>whom</u>, nor do they need to use the subjunctive. Native speakers often misuse these forms but are nevertheless understood.

6. Teach grammar as it is needed for successful communication. Let the grammar emerge from the communication goal.

7. An error does not necessarily mean the student has not learned a particular language feature. There is usually a lag between understanding a particular language feature and the student's ability to use it.

8. Adapt your language to the ability of your student. Although sentences should be grammatically correct, you can simplify structures, slow the pace, limit your vocabulary, speak clearly, and control the use of obscure idioms. But keep the language natural.

9. Accented speech and some grammatical errors are inevitable for second language learners and are acceptable as long as students can communicate effectively. The new language has been superimposed on an existing system; there is bound to be interference between the two.

10. Keep the class student-centered. Develop opportunities for students to learn English by using it. Students should be talking the

majority of class time. The teacher acts as a guide and should resist giving lectures.

11. Language is best learned when it is incidental to some other task. Set up situations that encourage students to increase their language ability and their willingness to take more risks in speaking.

12. Students can help each other learn. Have students work together in pairs to increase class participation.

13. Vary classroom activities. Plan lessons in 10- to 20-minute segments. Language learning does not have to be a tedious task.

Acquiring a new language is a complex task which requires the intellectual and emotional involvement of both student and teacher. It can be an exciting and rewarding experience for both. Trust what you know about how people learn best and how children learn their first language and apply it in the classroom.

IV. LANGUAGE LEARNING TECHNIQUES: LISTENING SKILLS

When students first arrive in the United States, they are often so overwhelmed by the strange language that they simply stop listening. An early goal in language teaching, therefore, is to give students the confidence they need to open their ears and try to understand what they are hearing. If students can understand even a portion of what is being said to them and around them, every experience can become a language learning opportunity. This section describes three ways teachers can help students develop important listening skills.

Total Physical Response.

Total Physical Response (TPR)* is a technique that stresses the link between words and the concrete reality the words represent. This relationship is established when the students physically carry out the teacher's commands.

Students do not talk during early TPR sessions. They demonstrate comprehension by carrying out the commands, thus focusing all the students' intellectual powers on understanding the new language. They do not have to worry about pronouncing the words correctly or using the correct grammatical pattern.

This method is most successful with complete beginners. In Model Lessons 1-4 (see pp. 62-66), the TPR section takes about 20 minutes out of an hour and a half lesson. In these lessons, the TPR method is used to teach the names of objects found in the classroom, as well as to teach action verbs the students will use during the class sessions or in real life. Later TPR sessions should teach vocabulary and

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*A detailed description of this method along with extensive model lessons can be found in James Asher, Learning Another Language Through Actions: A Complete Teacher's Guide (Los Gatos, Calif.: Skyoaks Productions, 1977).

structures that contribute to practical lessons such as using the post office or visiting the doctor.

One of the objectives of Model Lesson 1 is to acquaint students with the class setting. Since the class will be a setting in which only English is used, students need to know the names of objects in this new environment. Each class setting will differ. This example assumes that the students are in a classroom; the technique could be adapted to a living room or lounge.

Most classrooms contain the following items: table, chair, wall, floor, ceiling, window, light, door, chalkboard, book, paper, pen, pencil, teacher. The verbs point, touch, stand up, walk, and sit down are used in this initial stage.

The teacher begins by stating the command and modeling the response. Usually at least one student will understand the command after seeing it modeled once or twice. Never let a student flounder. If a command is not understood, model it again or ask another student who seems to understand. Then repeat the command to the first student. Students need success and confidence, not defeat and frustration.

Everyone, point to the window. **Teacher models command.**
Maria, point to the window.
Paula, point to the window.
Everyone, point to the window.
Now, point to the door. **Model command.**

Continue in this way, introducing about three new words at a time. Recombine the words in any possible way. By the end of the session, the commands will sound something like this:

Suga, stand up and walk to the window. Touch the window.
Paula, touch the table.
Everyone, stand up. Point to the window, point to the teacher. Touch the table.
Maria, stand up. Walk to the door. Touch the door.

Suga, walk to your chair and sit down.

Maria, walk to the table. Point to the book. Now touch number 3.

Everyone, stand up. Point to the window, Point to the chalkboard. Touch your chair. Sit down.

Paula, point to the ceiling. Touch number 9.

Language patterns used are repetitive. You are not assigning vocabulary to be studied and memorized--you are helping students enter new words into an English language program they are constructing in their minds.

At the end of the session, offer to write any of the words used during the session on the chalkboard. Also write a model of each sentence structure that has been used. This will help to reinforce the learning. The primary link for the student should be between the sound and the action or object, not the written form of the word.

After the initial lesson, all successive lessons begin with a rapid-paced review of previously learned material. Beginning at the fifth or sixth session, students are encouraged to change places with the teacher and give a few familiar commands to the class (and the teacher). Encourage students to try assuming the teacher's role, but do not push. The student must feel ready.

Total Physical Response can also be used in lessons with a more functional focus. Model Lesson 5 on page 67 is designed to help students use the post office more efficiently. Many vocabulary words necessary for this lesson can be taught using TPR. A preliminary list of words needed at a post office includes: stamp, postcard, aerogram, envelope, package, tape, wrapping paper, box, scale, pen, postage chart, weight, line, give, stand, open, weigh, write, buy.

Develop the TPR session by introducing words needed at a post office with material that has already been learned. Present about three new words at a time modeling the action or manipulating the objects until the students begin to comprehend.

The teacher puts a stamp, postcard, and aerogram on the table.

Maria, pick up the stamp. (Teacher points to the stamp.) Give the stamp to Suga.
Suga, put the stamp on the postcard.
Paula, pick up the stamp and the postcard. Give the stamp to Maria and the postcard to Suga.
Maria, pick up the aerogram and give it to Suga.

Continue until responses are easily and quickly completed by most students. Then place an envelope, box, and pen on the table.

Suga, pick up the envelope. Give the envelope to Maria.
Maria, open the envelope. Put the stamp in the envelope.
Paula, pick up the box. Give the box to Maria.
Maria, open the box and put the envelope in the box.
Suga, stand up and walk to the door.
Maria, stand up. Walk to Suga. Now stand in back of Suga.
Paula, stand up and walk to Suga. Stand in front of Suga.
Teacher: You are standing in a line.
Paula, stand in the back of the line.
Maria, stand in the front of the line.

Continue to develop the lesson in the same way. Introduce new words with familiar words and patterns. Try to recombine words so they are used in different ways. Give commands involving new items to the stronger students. Let the slower ones listen a few times before they are asked to respond. If a student does not understand, model the action or direct the command to another student. Then immediately repeat the command for the first student. Do this in a matter-of-fact way. Show no impatience or evaluation. Try to communicate an attitude that says, "Don't worry, you will understand soon."

Listening for Specific Information.

Classroom language is controlled by the teacher. The structures are simple, the pace is slow, and the use of idioms is controlled. But in the real world, students must separate the information they seek from the extraneous phrases or sentences that surround it.

To help students listen for specific information, give them a set of questions in advance of a listening exercise. For beginners, there may be only a few questions. More advanced students can handle a longer list.

For instance, when the class session is about family relationships, bring a picture of your children or other close relatives. Before class, write a paragraph about the people in the picture. Before you read the paragraph, ask students to listen for specific information such as:

1. How old are the children?
2. Are the children married?
3. What are their jobs?

The teacher then shows the class the picture and reads the paragraph about the people in the photograph.

> These are my children, Susan and Peter. They both live in Delaware. That's in the eastern part of the United States. Susan is 25. She's tall and very athletic. She plays tennis and volleyball and jogs every day with her husband, Joseph. Susan is a chemist. She works for Du Pont, a large chemical firm. Peter is 19. He's a college student. He wants to become a math teacher when he graduates. He plays baseball and sings in the college choir. He's not married yet. Maybe he'll marry when he's older.

Repeat the information about the children as often as is necessary. Ask the students for the answers to the questions. Then repeat the paragraph again. Be sure everyone can find the answers to the questions. Remember, the passage should contain some words and

structures that the students do not know. Students can also be asked to deduce information. They should know Susan is married because she has a husband. They should not have to hear the words "Susan is married."

This same approach can be used with a recording of a short radio weather report. Ask the students to listen for two or three specific items such as:

1. What was the high temperature yesterday?
2. Will it rain today?

Then play the recording as many times as required for students to find the answers. Be sure everyone knows the answer; then play the recording one more time.

Look for other ways this method can help students learn to listen selectively. Radio advertisements telling of special sale items at the supermarket or department store could provide excellent practice.

Dictation.

When students write what the teacher dictates, they accomplish two language learning objectives: (1) they comprehend the general meaning of the message, and (2) they combine that understanding with what they have learned about English to write out the phrase or sentence.

Before beginning students are able to do regular dictations, they can write short answers to questions about the class.

Teacher reads:	**Student writes:**
Is Maria from Mexico?	Yes, she is.
Does Paula have six children?	No, she doesn't.
Am I a teacher?	Yes, you are.
Are there six students in this class?	No, there aren't.

As soon as the exercise is completed, review the answers with the class. Students should think of these short exercises as learning experiences, not tests. Informally review the students' written

answers to be sure that they are using the short answer form correctly.

Simple dictations can be used to give assignments. For instance, a class may plan to watch the same television show. Before each episode, dictate a set of questions that will help students understand the show.

1. What are the names of the mother and the father?
2. What city does the family live in?
3. Do they live in a house or an apartment?
4. Do the children go to school?
5. Is the family happy?

In this type of simple dictation, read each question twice. Do not break the questions into shorter phrases. You want students to use their understanding of the new language to help them complete the task, so give them plenty of time to write each sentence. When all the questions have been read, offer to repeat any questions.

Have the questions written on a large piece of paper or on the chalkboard so that the students can check their sentences for accuracy. This gives them a chance to see where the errors are and also ensures that everyone has the same set of questions when they are watching the television program.

Dialogues can also be used as the basis for a dictation.

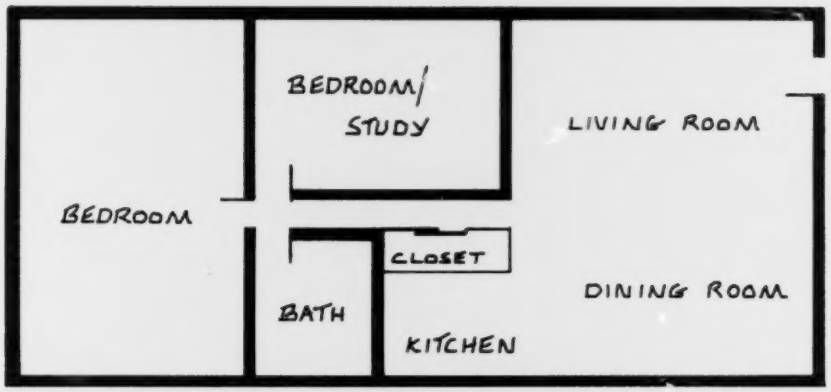
Receptionist: Dr. Brown's office. May I help you?
Mother: I'd like to make an appointment.
R: All right. What's the problem?
M: My son has a bad cough.
R: Can you come tomorrow morning at 10:30?
M: Yes, we can. Thank you.

When dictating a dialogue, read the dialogue through using a normal conversational style while the students just listen. They need to understand the message in its totality. Then break the dialogue down into sentences or phrases of about seven to nine words. If you

need to divide a sentence into phrases, look for natural breaking points that preserve the flow and meaning of the sentence. Read each segment once or twice while the students write. Then read the whole dialogue again so that students can review what they have written. When the exercise is finished, let students check their work against a printed version of the dictation and make the necessary corrections.

One learning goal in this type of exercise is accomplished when the students move from comprehension to reproduction. In the sentence "My son has a bad cough.", students can understand the messages if they hear "....son.....cough." In order to write the complete sentence, however, students must rely on their knowledge of English structure to help supply the other words.

Another useful variation is to use dictations in conjunction with pictures. As part of a lesson in which students have been learning to describe their homes, the following dictation could be used while students look at the floor plan of Joan and Peter's apartment.



Joan and Peter live in married student housing./ Their apartment is on the second floor/ of a big apartment building./ They have a living room and dining room./ The kitchen is next to the dining room./ In the middle of the apartment is a long hall./ Off the hall is a closet for their coats,/ a bathroom, and two bedrooms./ One bedroom is a study./ They sleep in the other bedroom./ They like their apartment very much./

Read the paragraph through once for general comprehension. Then read each segment (indicated by slashes) once or twice while the students write. Next read the complete passage so that students can review what they have written. Finally, have students check for accuracy against a written copy of the dictation.

After an exercise like this, students can draw floor plans of their own apartments. They can show the plan to the class and describe their homes using the dictation as a model.

Dictations can also serve as a review exercise at the end of a unit. In Model Lesson 5, the following dictation could summarize the class's experience at a post office:

> The post office in Newtown/ is on the corner of Fourth and Pine./ It's a big building with two floors./ On the first floor/ you can buy stamps and mail packages./ There's always a long line at the post office./ You stand in the back of the line/ and wait for your turn./ To mail a package,/ wrap the box with paper and strong tape./ Print the name and address in big letters./ Be sure to put/ the return address in the top left corner./ The clerk at the post office weighs the package/ and sells you the stamps./ You can buy money orders at the post office./ Some people use Express Mail./ They pay some money/ and the post office delivers their letter within 24 hours.

Follow the same steps as the ones used in the dialogue and floor plan dictations. Read the passage through once in a conversational manner. Break the passage into segments of about seven to nine words. Read each segment once or twice, preserving the speech pattern of the whole sentence while the students write. Read the whole passage again so that the students can review what they have written. Allow students to check their work against the original paragraph.

The suggestions in this section share one common feature--they actively involve students in the listening process. When this key feature is present, students are learning to comprehend, organize, and evaluate what they learn.

V. LANGUAGE LEARNING TECHNIQUES: SPEAKING SKILLS

Obviously, your students cannot go through life listening and nodding meaningfully. At some point, they must communicate with others. Therefore, the development of speaking skills should be a goal of every class session. Your students need speaking skills that will give them confidence to use English in their new world--at the supermarket, restaurant, school, bank, and, of course, with their new friends. Your role is to provide language experiences that encourage students to use their new language. This section includes examples of four techniques that strengthen speaking skills.

Pattern Drills.

Pattern drills enable students to practice specific sentence patterns. Within these patterns they can see how a variety of words can be used to send different messages. Before students have enough confidence to create their own sentences, they often need the safety of a drill to practice what they want to say.

Drills should be developed to fit a particular communication goal such as using the post office, planning a party, or shopping for clothes. The goal of such lessons is to develop the ability to communicate needs and wishes. The drill then becomes a tool the students use to reach the goal.

When students are preparing for a trip to a post office, the following substitution drill could prepare them to negotiate with a postal clerk.

Teacher:	**Student:**
T: I want to buy a stamp.	**S:** I want to buy a stamp.
T: an aerogram.	**S:** I want to buy an aerogram.
T: a postcard.	**S:** I want to buy a postcard.
T: a money order.	**S:** I want to buy a money order.

The teacher starts by saying the first sentence while holding up a stamp. The students repeat the sentence. Then the teachér says the

word or phrase that should be substituted and holds up the new object. The students say the whole sentence with the new word or phrase. The teacher repeats the new sentence and moves on to the next item. This drill can be done with the whole class or with individual students. The substituted word can be used several times, but the order should be altered. Verbs can be substituted as well; for example, "I need to buy a stamp."

Another kind of drill can be set up to answer the question, "Where are you from?" Base the drill on information that the students already know or can read from a class-generated conversation chart such as the one used in Model Lesson 1.

T: Maria is from Mexico.	**S:** Maria is from Mexico.
T: Maria: I	**Maria:** I am from Mexico.
T: Suga: She (pointing to Paula)	**Suga:** She is from Brazil.
T: Paula: You (pointing to yourself)	**Paula:** You are from the United States.

In this drill, the students not only change the subject but also change the verb forms. Continue the drill practicing each form several times but mixing up the order. Be sure to include everyone in the class.

Students can also use drills to practice making requests such as "Please hand me the _____." Place a variety of objects and/or pictures of objects on a table. These might include: a fork, book, spoon, cup, glove, salt shaker, pepper shaker, pencil, or flower.

The teacher picks up one item and says the model for the drill, "Please hand me the flower." The students repeat the model. The teacher picks up another object, perhaps the spoon. The class says, "Please hand me the spoon." This drill could also be directed toward individual students with the students receiving the object they request.

Adapt this drill to help students learn where adjectives are placed in a sentence. Place additional items on the table so that there are books, pencils, and flowers of various colors and forks,

gloves, and spoons of two sizes. Students then practice the same pattern but with more variations.

T: Please hand me the green book. (holds up the green book)
T: Suga: (holds up big spoon)
T: (hands Suga spoon)

S: Please hand me the green book.
Suga: Please hand me the big spoon.

If the class plans a birthday celebration, they may make a list of the items they have and of those someone needs to bring. The list on the chalkboard may look like this:

We have	**We need**
paper napkins	cake
cups	candles
coffee	sugar
tea	milk
spoons	forks
knife	

The teacher then sets up a drill to practice affirmative and negative forms by pointing to the word and having the class form the appropriate sentence.

T: We have cups. **S:** We have cups.
T: candles **S:** We don't have candles.
T: spoons **S:** We have spoons.

The same drill can be used with the verb <u>need</u> and its negative form <u>don't need.</u>

T: sugar **S:** We need sugar.
T: coffee **S:** We don't need coffee.

When students are working on a shopping unit, they will need to discuss the reasons why something is not purchased. For a clothes shopping expedition, the reasons could be organized into a sentence chart that looks like this:

It's	too	big. small. long. short. expensive.
	the wrong	size. color. shape.

The teacher then sets up a drill using the information in the sentence chart.

T: It's too big.	**S:** It's too big.
T: long	**S:** It's too long.
T: color	**S:** It's the wrong color.
T: short	**S:** It's too short.

Pattern drills should only be used for short periods of time. They are by definition very repetitive and artificial. However, when the drills are a part of a larger communication goal, the students will benefit from the practice drills afford.

Dialogues.

A dialogue is an interaction between two people that could happen in your students' real world. Students find themselves in a common situation, receive a standard opener, and then are able to respond. Because our language contains many rituals and patterns, students find they really can use the dialogues they have memorized.

Dialogues should be appropriate to the language ability of the students. If students memorize a dialogue that is too complicated, the least variation on the part of a shopkeeper or new acquaintance can so confuse the learners that they will be unable to complete their tasks.

Here is an example of one of the earliest dialogues a student might memorize.

Student 1: What's your telephone number?
Student 2: 925-2389
Student 1: Pardon me?
Student 2: 925-2389
Student 1: Please write it down.
Student 2: (writes the number)
Student 1: Thank you.

After the students memorize the dialogue, they practice with each other either requesting the information or giving it. The same dialogue can be used to request names or addresses.

Another type of dialogue offers students more variables. The following example is a dialogue that could take place in any department store.

Clerk: Can I help you?
Customer: Yes, I'd like a shirt. (A)
Clerk: Well, how about this one?
Customer: No, I don't think so.
Clerk: Do you like that one over there?
Customer: Yes, that's nice. How much is it?
Clerk: $12.95. (B)
Customer: Good! I'll take it./ No, that's too expensive. What else do you have?

Students repeat the dialogue substituting the words in slot A and slot B. In each transaction, the student must decide whether the price is acceptable or too expensive.

A	B
coat	$69.95
purse	$35.75
scarf	$ 5.35
blouse	$15.99
umbrella	$ 8.50
dictionary	$14.25

A third type of dialogue can be developed in which students tell what they do in their leisure time. Write the activities on the chalkboard. The list may include: play tennis, read, cook, swim, sing, dance, play football, watch TV. (As students list their activities, write the form of the word needed in the dialogue.)

When you have the list, build the dialogue.

Student 1: What do you like to do in your leisure time?
Student 2: Read.
Student 1: Would you rather read than cook?
Student 2: Sure! I like to read more than anything.

The students can now build on the dialogue by substituting any of the words from the list they have compiled.

Some students will be able to develop their own dialogues. Choose a setting and task that fits in with the learning objectives of a lesson. Divide the class into pairs and have each pair develop a dialogue that will accomplish a particular task. Settings and tasks might be:

Setting	Task
grocery store	Find the milk.

telephone	Make an appointment with the dentist.
school	Find the principal's office.
drug store	Get some change for the bus.
train station	Buy a ticket to New York.

After the students have worked out the dialogues, they can share them with the rest of the class. Corrections may be necessary to make the dialogues natural to a native speaker. You may want to write out the dialogues and make a copy for each class member.

Role Plays.

An extension of the dialogue is the use of role play in the classroom. Role plays have no memorized scripts. Students are given the setting and the task but must improvise the dialogue. The goal in role playing is to communicate. If this is accomplished, the role play has been a success. At first, the teacher can assume one of the roles and ask one of the stronger students to play the other part. The same situation can be repeated until the weaker students are ready to try. Later, two students can work together.

You may want to help set the scene for the role play by providing a few props. A sign saying "Central Market" or "Sugar and Spice Bakery" or some chairs arranged for a taxi can help the students get into the spirit of the activity.

Here are some possible settings and tasks that should help you get started.

Setting	**Characters**	**Task**
taxi	customer/driver	Arrange for a ride to an intended destination.
newsstand	customer/clerk	Buy a newspaper from your country.
post office	customer/clerk	Buy a book of stamps.
telephone	doctor/mother	Make an appointment for the doctor to see a sick child.

Role plays are usually incorporated into broader lessons with specific communication goals such as using the post office or visiting the doctor. They may take only five or 10 minutes of the whole lesson. Sometimes students have communication problems that they share with the class. For instance, an American friend asked one student to dinner. The student wanted to go but had another commitment. She told her friend, "I don't want to go." The friend seemed offended. In class, the student asked what she had done wrong. The teacher used role playing to help the student and the rest of the class find better ways to communicate.

Conversation Practice.

Conversation practice is an extremely important part of language learning. Conversations and discussions cause students to use their emerging language ability to communicate their ideas. They use the structures and words they know, but even more important, they learn new words and new structures so that they can communicate their ideas to others.

Set aside a portion of most sessions for conversation. During the early stages of language learning, teachers can help students by asking questions about their country or their lives in the United States. These are usually factual questions which can be answered using simple structures and a limited vocabulary. The student, in turn, can ask the teacher similar questions.

Good conversations and discussions do not just happen. They take preparation on the part of the teacher. Sometimes the conversation portion of the class session can be a time when cross-cultural information can be shared. For instance, students may be able to talk about the role of women in their countries by completing the statement, "It's good to be a woman in _____because_____." Each student can share one or two ideas with the others.

The same approach could be used to share ideas about being mothers or wives.

Another area of interest may be U.S. schools. Parents may be puzzled by some of the differences their children experience. On the chalkboard write two headings:

Schools in the United States Schools in my country

Have students list differences and similarities such as class size, language, subjects, or behavior of the children. The teacher may have to provide information about U.S. schools.

This type of exercise assumes some familiarity with English. Obviously, absolute beginners cannot share even in this basic way. But after several weeks, conversations can lead to real, though halting, communication among class members.

When cross-cultural issues are discussed, the teacher's role is that of listener and learner. Never pass judgment on someone else's culture. During the early stages of language learning, it may be impossible for the teacher to explain common cultural or social practices in the United States. Until students learn more English, you may only be able to empathize with their concerns.

The ability to communicate in a new language can only be developed by using that language. This may take the form of simple drills or class discussions. Every session should provide opportunities for students to speak in an environment that enables them to risk using their new language.

VI. LANGUAGE LEARNING TECHNIQUES: READING AND WRITING SKILLS

For your students, listening and speaking skills will be far more important than reading and writing skills. However, you will need to consider how to help them build the basic reading and writing competencies. Because the United States is a literate society, one must have at least a limited ability to read and write in order to adapt to life in the United States. The goal for this section is to demonstrate how you can teach students who are familiar with the Latin alphabet the reading and writing skills they need in order to cope with their new environment.

Reading Skills.

To determine the reading objectives for your class, start by making a list of the tasks your students will need to accomplish that require reading. Your list may include:

1. Finding a telephone number in the telephone book
2. Locating an apartment in the classified section of a newspaper
3. Using a cookbook
4. Ordering from a restaurant menu
5. Buying food, drugs, and clothing in a store
6. Understanding a child's report card
7. Understanding bus and train schedules
8. Following road signs

In order to develop skills that will enable your students to complete these tasks, determine what mini-skills your students will need and build up to the point where they can complete the task. Here are several examples.

Finding a Number in the Telephone Book

The white pages of the telephone book can be used if a student can match identical words and alphabetize. Therefore, build students' mini-skills by doing one of the simplest of reading tasks: finding the

identical word. Students are given a sheet of paper with rows of five or six words. They circle the matching word. Make the task a little challenging--at least two of the words should be similar to the key word.

brother	borrow	bother	batter	breaker	brother
green	grow	Greek	green	greed	great
church	child	chime	chore	church	crunch
school	shell	school	scheme	scholar	scoff
turn	tear	torn	turn	train	term

When words can be matched easily, move on to alphabetizing. Give students a list of words and have them arrange the words in alphabetical order. This sounds like an easy task, but many language learners do not have an automatic sense of the order of our alphabet.

Now make a copy of a page from the telephone directory and practice finding names, addresses, and phone numbers. When students can complete this task, review the emergency and service numbers in the front of the telephone book.

The yellow pages require an additional mini-skill. Not only must students be able to alphabetize, they must also be able to categorize and know the names of the categories. This skill is more complex than it may appear initially. The manner in which items are grouped into categories can vary from culture to culture. There is no single logical system for grouping objects or services. For instance, most countries group mail and telegram services together at the post office. However, visitors to the United States have to discover the unexpected connection between "Western Union" and a place to send telegrams.

Categorizing can be developed at the early stages by pasting pictures on 3" x 5" cards. Students are given cards with the names of three or four categories and a set of 20 or 30 cards with a picture of a member of one of the categories on each card. (Some teachers have the students make their own cards from pictures clipped from

catalogs.) Students must then place the pictures under the appropriate categories. For instance, the categories could be furniture, dishes, and people. The pictures could include a plate, chair, baby, cup, girl, table, desk, bowl, bed, man, and so forth.

This type of exercise can build to a more difficult task in which only words are used. For instance, students could be given the following assignment:

Instructions: The following items are on your shopping list. You are going to three stores: a grocery store, a clothing store, and a stationery store. In which store will you find each of these items?

milk	sugar
dress	pants
notebook	orange
coat	envelope
pencil	shirt
rice	file folder
soap	salt
gloves	eraser
pen	skirt

Once these types of mini-skills are developed, students are ready to tackle the yellow pages of the telephone book. Simply finding the restaurant section is only half the task. Students must be able to process the information about a set of restaurants so that they can determine which one meets their needs on a particular occasion.

To do this, they need to learn to skim the section to find general information. For instance, skimming the restaurant section of the yellow pages could provide the answers to these questions.

1. Are there a lot of restaurants in your town or city?
2. What types of food are available?
3. Do some restaurants have take-out service?
4. From the ads, do some of the restaurants appear to be expensive?

When these general questions have been answered, students scan the advertisements in order to find specific information so that they can complete a task. A set of scanning questions for restaurant advertisements in the yellow pages might look like this:

Task: Your family wants to have pizza on Saturday afternoon at a restaurant within walking distance of your house. Look in the yellow pages and scan for the answers to these questions. When you finish you will know where you can eat.

1. Which restaurants serve pizza?
2. Which of these restaurants are open Saturday afternoon?
3. Which of these welcome children?
4. Which of these is closest to your house?

Where will you eat this Saturday?

In reading advertisements in the yellow pages, there are also some organizational conventions that are generally followed. Students need to understand the format they will encounter. For instance, the name of the store or company is usually at the top of the ad while the address and telephone number tend to be at the bottom. You know these conventions, so the scanning task is easy. Your students, on the other hand, will tend to read through the entire ad trying to find the address because they do not know to look at the bottom.

In learning to use the telephone book, your students have worked on five mini-skills: matching, alphabetizing, categorizing, skimming, and scanning. These skills can also be used to accomplish other tasks.

Using an American Cookbook

Being able to read an American cookbook is often important to foreign student families. Often, they cannot rely on favorite recipes from home because the staples required are either unavailable or too expensive to use. If they can read a cookbook, however, they can learn to cook food that is easily available in the local supermarket.

In order to use a cookbook, all the mini-skills that have been discussed will be needed. Initially, one skims the book to see what

kinds of recipes are to be found. Scanning skills are needed when looking for a specific recipe such as skillet rice or chicken casserole. All cookbooks are organized into categories: meat and poultry, desserts, vegetables and salads, soups, and so forth. In the index, the names are arranged alphabetically by both recipe and category.

Readers also need to understand the recipe format and the specialized vocabulary and abbreviations. Words like saute, preheat, drain, chill, blend, dust, or fold all have special meanings in a recipe. In addition, abbreviations such as c. t. T. qt. and pt need to be learned and conceptualized. Just as most Americans do not have a mental picture of the size of a gram, most of your students will puzzle over the relative sizes of teaspoons, cups, and quarts. These words and abbreviations are best learned by looking at actual recipes. You can copy a recipe for everyone in the class for one lesson. For our example, we have chosen skillet rice--it is easy, and it is cheap.

Skillet Rice

In a heavy sauce pan or skillet, sauté until brown

1/2 lb. ground beef

Remove the beef. Stir and cook in the drippings until brown:

1/2 c rice

Add and cook until brown:

1/2 c thinly sliced onions

Add beef and:

1 1/4 c canned tomatoes with juice

1/2 t salt

1 t paprika

1 seeded minced green pepper

Allow the mixture to come to a boil. Then reduce heat to low, cover and cook for about 1/2 hour or until rice is tender. Add more water if rice becomes too dry. Serve hot.

Serves 3 to 4 people

After the class has read through the recipe, have them make a list of words and abbreviations they do not understand.

Encourage the class to make some intelligent guesses about the meaning of the words and the abbreviations. It is better to make a guess based on other clues in the sentence than to turn reading into a dictionary exercise.

After several recipes have been studied, arrange for your class to meet in a kitchen so that the dishes can be prepared and shared.

This step-by-step approach, which teaches students to use their mini-skills, can be used in a variety of necessary reading tasks: menus, labels, schedules, classified advertisements, signs, shopping ads, report cards, and so forth. There are three essential elements in developing any reading lesson: (1) evaluate what the students need to know, (2) teach the mini-skills involved, and (3) practice the skills using actual examples of the written material. Always keep reading tasks practical.

Writing Skills.

To develop a sound writing program, the first step is to determine the writing needs of your students. Your list will probably include:

1. Completing forms--checks, deposit slips, applications of various types
2. Addressing letters and packages
3. Sending telegrams
4. Writing short notes or letters

In order to complete these tasks, students need to understand what the format requires and then practice using that format. For instance, having a bank account requires students to (1) complete the application form to open an account, (2) fill out a deposit slip, (3) write checks, and (4) balance a checkbook. Fortunately, all the forms are easy to obtain from a local bank. If you cannot get multiple copies, you can photocopy a single set.

Start with the application to open an account. Elicit from the entire class the information asked for on each line of the form. Then have students practice completing the forms. Banks also have shorter forms that are used regularly: deposit slips, checks, and savings withdrawals. These forms are easy to master, but students need practice. Bring in copies of each type of form. Spend a few minutes each session with a form until they have mastered each one. Remember, it is better to have several short sessions on a project like this than to spend one day writing out five different types of banking forms.

If your students do not handle the banking for the family, then use a driver's license application or Social Security application for this exercise. Later on, ask the class to bring in other types of applications they must complete. Look for similarities and then focus on the specialized language required for each different type of form. Always try to get students to make knowledgeable predictions about how each form should be completed.

Notes and letters require different skills, but once again, there is a format to follow. Model notes can be drafted by the class. The teacher starts by having the class list various circumstances that require short notes: a note to a teacher asking that a child be excused for illness, comments on a report card, a letter to a landlord requesting that a leaking pipe be fixed, a thank you note to a host family, and so forth. Then the class, with the teacher's guidance, decides what should be included in each type of note. When the model meets with everyone's approval, including the teacher's, the model is typed and photocopied so that each class member has a copy at home. As additional writing needs arise, students can bring them to the attention of the class so that new models can be developed.

Both of these examples have followed four simple steps that will be useful in other writing tasks students must learn.

1. Determine the writing need
2. Demonstrate the format
3. Practice using the format
4. Apply the skills in the real world

VII. DEMONSTRATING GRAMMAR

Successful communication requires an understanding of the grammar of English. This can best be accomplished by controlling the language used in the classroom so that students can slowly develop an understanding of how words fit together in English. Beginners are taught to use simple rather than complex sentences to reach their communication objective. They can request help in the supermarket by saying, "Excuse me, I need powdered milk." rather than the more complex, "Excuse me, but could you tell me where you keep the powdered milk?"

Therefore, choose a set of communication objectives for the lesson. Reach those objectives by using language forms that are simple, controlled, and straightforward. Then use the forms in as many variations as possible to reinforce the pattern. As students become comfortable with the pattern, new grammatical features can be added. Look at Model Lesson 1 (p. 62). The initial conversation chart uses two simple sentences.

[My/Your/Her] [name/hair/age] [is] _____.

[What] [is] [my/your/her] [age/name] ?

The communication objective of this exercise is to learn some information about the other class members. But, at the same time, students learn to use possessive adjectives, the verb <u>to be,</u> and various nouns and adjectives. They also practice a question form that inverts the subject and the verb. They are learning to use a lot of grammar.

In the second portion of the lesson, the command form is used.

[Touch] [the] [picture/door/book/pen/table].

In this pattern, students are introduced to action verbs, nouns as objects, and the definite article. No one has defined <u>touch</u> as a transitive verb requiring an object. It is simply used that way.

<u>Verb Tenses</u>.

The form and meaning of verb tenses can be confusing. Even the best students have a difficult time learning the present, past, and

future tenses simultaneously. Consequently, tenses are usually taught sequentially. One common order is given below:

1. The verb to be: "I am a mother." "She's ten years old." "What are their names?"

2. The verb to have: "She has three children." "Can I have a sandwich?" "What do you have for lunch?"

3. Simple present tense: "Our class begins at 3:00." "When do you usually go to bed?" "I live in California."

4. Present continuous tense: "He's studying at the library." She's playing volleyball tonight." "Are you going to the store?"

5. Future tense with to be + going + the infinitive: "She's going to study engineering." "I'm going to go to the store." "Are you going to visit Jane?"

6. Future tense with will + the simple form of the verb: "I'll be in Chicago on Tuesday." "Will she write Tom?" "They'll live in married student housing."

7. Past tense of to be: "I was a housewife." "They were at the store yesterday." "Were you at the party?"

8. Simple past tense: "I studied at the library last night." "Did she arrive on time?" "I gave her my jacket."

With these basic tenses, most essential ideas can be communicated. If you teach intermediate or advanced students, they will need to understand the perfect tenses. "She has gone to the store." "I had left by the time he arrived." "I have been teaching for three years." "I had been living in the United States for two years when my father died."

Sometimes students need to use a grammatical structure long before it has been taught. For example, students are frequently asked, "How long have you been in the United States?" This common sentence uses the present perfect tense. In order to respond to this question, students should simply memorize, "I've been here for _____." They should think of the sentence as an expression or idiomatic phrase.

The order you choose for teaching tenses is not significant. Overloading your students with too many new items is.

Ways To Demonstrate Grammatical Forms.

1. Write a set of words on the chalkboard. Ask students to arrange them into statements or questions using all the words given and capitalizing the initial letter in the sentence.

book--me--yellow--give--please--the--.

Please give me the yellow book.

have--chicken--you--do--any--?

Do you have any chicken?

at--concert--there--people--a--the--of--are--lot--.

There are a lot of people at the concert.

2. Read a set of five words. Ask the students to identify the word that is different in grammatical function.

boy--book--run--table--apple

to--with--over--bed--on

3. Write out a set of sentences that contain speaking or writing errors commonly made by class members. Have students take turns correcting the errors to the satisfaction of the class and the teacher.

4. Prepare sentence charts that show how sentence parts are combined and how one pattern can communicate many ideas. In these charts, students choose one word from each box to form a sentence.

I You We They	want	a cup of	coffee. tea. flour. sugar.
He She	wants		cocoa. milk.

	you		the concert?
	he	like	the movie?
Did	she	enjoy	the TV show?
	they		the book?

5. On individual cards, print enough words to be able to create a variety of statements and questions. You may need 30 or more cards. Then select word cards to form one sentence.

he	is	a	teacher	.

Replace he with they. Then ask a student to adjust the rest of the words in the sentence to make it correct.

they	are	teachers	.

Then ask the student to change the statement to a question.

are	they	teachers	?

(Because the word cards can be used in a variety of places, capitalization has to be disregarded in this exercise.)

6. Many questions require only short--but grammatically correct--answers.

Can you swim?	Yes, I can.
Do you like coffee?	No, I don't.
Will she be at the party?	Yes, she will.

To use the short answer effectively, students must practice listening for the first word of the question. Often this can be practiced when material from previous lessons is being reviewed.

Can you buy stamps at the post office? Yes, I can.
Is Maria from Japan? No, she isn't.
Did you eat at McDonalds? Yes, we did.

7. Students are often confused by why some nouns (books, boys, tables) have plural forms while other nouns (water, salt, rice) do not. These are often called "count" and "non-count" nouns. A physical demonstration of these items helps students understand the reasoning behind the two types of nouns. Bring to class ground coffee, rice, salt, flour, sugar, lemonade, pepper, etc. In addition, bring some containers: teaspoons, cups, glasses, bowls, pitchers. Ask the students to "count the flour, the water, or the sugar." They will soon see that it is an impossible task unless the item is placed in a container such as a cup or a teaspoon. Then the containers of flour or rice can be counted.

8. More advanced students should learn to use complex sentence forms. To demonstrate how complex sentences are formed, write out a series of related simple sentences such as those shown below. Then show the students how the simple sentences can be combined to form complex sentences.

Maria is a housewife.
Maria lives in married student housing.
Maria thinks about her family in Colombia.
Maria becomes homesick.
Maria likes to write long letters to her family.
The letters make her feel closer to her family.

Maria is a housewife who lives in married student housing. When she thinks about her family in Colombia, she becomes homesick. When she writes her family long letters, she feels closer to them.

9. Compound sentences can be demonstrated by using word cards. Two independent but related sentences are formed. The two sentences are then joined with a conjunction and the repetitive words removed.

Do not feel you must demonstrate the rules behind every grammatical decision. If you cannot show why a particular form is used, tell the class you do not know the reason but will try to find out before the next session. Some teachers find it helpful to own a grammar book written specifically for ESL teachers. These books detail the rules needed for communication rather than focusing on prescriptive rules designed to improve a student's writing. An example of this type of book has been evaluated in Materials Selection (Chapter XII).

Do not let English grammar intimidate you. Grammar is an adjunct to the communication goals of the lesson--one of many tools used to communicate ideas. The rapport you establish with students and the friendly, supportive attitude you develop among students are far more important for successful language teaching than a consummate knowledge of English grammar.

VIII. IMPROVING PRONUNCIATION

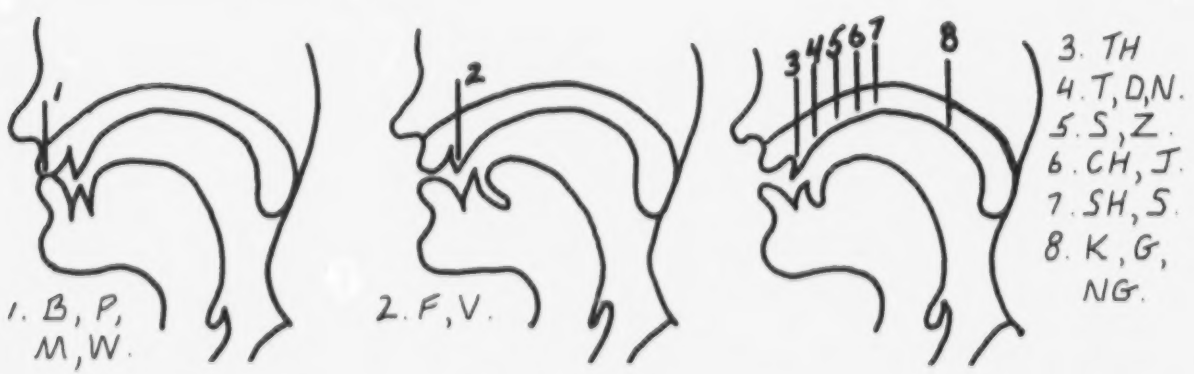
Almost everyone who learns a language after childhood speaks the new language with a "foreign accent." Sometimes this accent is slight and does not block communication. In other cases, the accent is so strong it is difficult to understand the intended meaning of the sentence.

In the past, language teachers combated this problem by devising elaborate drills to teach the sounds and patterns of the new language. Today, however, most ESL teachers use their understanding of the sound system of English to address pronunciation problems when they arise and in the context of the intended communication.

Pronunciation problems have many sources ranging from errors in a single sound to improper intonation of the entire sentence. In this section, six language features that affect pronunciation are discussed. With this background, teachers should be able to identify the major pronunciation problems students experience and help them become clearer communicators. The goal is not "native" pronunciation but rather intelligible communication.

English Sounds.

There are thousands of sounds that can be used in human speech, but each language uses only a limited portion of these sounds. All English sounds are made by pushing air through the mouth or nose. These sounds vary when we change the air movement by using the lips, teeth, and tongue to obstruct the air at certain articulation points. Below are three pictures of the mouth with some of the main articulation points shown.



Try to feel the articulation points used in the underscored portion of the following words. Say each line out loud several times.

1. boy, win, man
2. fish, vine
3. thin, there
4. time, doll, name
5. sit, zoo
6. church, jewel
7. ship, vision
8. kitchen, gate, rang

The points of articulation move back through the mouth starting with the lips and moving along the roof of the mouth. The underscored sounds in each line are made in the same part of the mouth with the same articulators. However, some of the sounds are voiced while others are voiceless. Voicing is caused when air passes through the taut vocal cords causing them to vibrate. This vibration can be felt by placing your hand on your throat. Say the underscored sound in the following sets of words (e.g., v in van). You must say these sounds out loud to tell the difference. Do not whisper.

1. buy, pie
2. van, fan
3. thy, thigh
4. die, tie
5. zoo, Sue
6. Jane, chain
7. gate, Kate
8. mission, vision

The underscored sound in the first word in each set is voiced. The second word, contains a voiceless sound in the same position. To make this sound, air passes through the vocal cords, but they are relaxed and do not vibrate; therefore, no vibration can be felt when your hand is placed on your throat. Repeat the words again to be sure that you can feel the difference between the voiced and voiceless sounds.

The sounds in the two sets shown above make up most of the consonant sounds in English. The three main consonants not included in this list are represented by the letters l, r, and h. These are particularly difficult sounds for many learners of English. Repeat the following words and notice what happens to your tongue when you make these three sounds.

1. lay, lettuce, lip
2. rye, ring, road
3. high, help, happy

The vowel sounds of English differ from the consonants in that they are all voiced sounds that flow freely through the mouth. They are not obstructed at any of the articulation points as the consonant sounds are. The sounds of the vowels are altered by changing the shape of the mouth. Repeat the words in each column and notice where each vowel sound occurs in your mouth and how you move your lips for the different sounds. Read down each column.

beat		boot
bit	Burt	book
bait	but	boat
bet		bought
bat		

The sounds in the first column are made in the front of the mouth, the sounds in the second column in the middle, and the sounds in the third column in the back. As you read down each column notice how your jaw drops, thus changing the shape of the mouth.

When students have difficulty making an English sound, you can demonstrate the correct formation with your mouth or with a diagram. For instance, if Spanish speakers pronounce the number 15 as "fisteen," show them how to make the /f/ sounds with the teeth on the lower lip. Students then practice making the sound at the beginning of words where there is no problem and then in the middle of words where the /s/ sound is blocking communication.

Sound Sets.

Although the production of unfamiliar sounds can be difficult, students may have even more trouble with the way sounds are organized in the new language. All languages group their sounds into sets (phonemes). Each member of the set is pronounced a little differently because of its unique environment, yet we subconsciously hear each variant as belonging to the same set. For instance, the phoneme /t/ actually takes on different sounds when we say the following words out loud quickly and naturally. Put your hand on your throat and try to feel the difference between some of these sounds.

t*t*ent s*t*op bu*tt*er moun*t*ain

In each of these words, the sounds around the /t/ cause the pronunciation to change. For instance, a /t/ between two vowels sounds more like a /d/, yet our brain perceives a member of the /t/ set.

Problems develop when the sets of sounds are arranged differently in a student's native language from what they are in English. Two sounds that are separate and distinct in English may be insignificant members of the same set in another language. Arabic speakers, for example, have difficulty hearing the difference between /p/ and /b/ at the beginning of a word, resulting in phrases such as "bark the car." Voicing is an important characteristic of English sounds, so we hear the difference between /p/ and /b/, particularly when it is the first sound in a word. But, for the Arabic speaker, voicing at the beginning of a word is only a minor variation within a sound set. Therefore, an Arabic speaker simply does not hear the sounds as different and distinct.

Sometimes a sound in one language does not exist in the system of another. The language learner then substitutes the closest sound possible. Spanish speakers have a sound that is made by vibrating both lips together. Since this sound does not exist in English, English speakers usually pronounce the capital of Cuba with an English /v/ sound or an English /b/ sound, the closest sounds we have in English to the correct Spanish sound.

These types of errors are particularly difficult to overcome because the brain has to be reprogrammed to perceive the English sound sets. Often students have no difficulty in making the sounds in isolation but are unable to pronounce them in certain parts of a word. One way to address this problem is to write the sounds on the board and number them.

1	2
p	b

Then the teacher reads a series of words and the students try to differentiate between the sounds, calling out the number of the sound they hear. The goal is to get the brain to hear the sound and enter it into the new English program it is learning. (Do not be distressed if reprogramming does not seem to be working--it takes time and motivation.)

Words and Word Parts.

Sounds in English are grouped to form root words, prefixes, and suffixes. The way these word parts are pronounced often depends on other sounds in the word. The past tense ending in English is a classic example of this situation. Students often add an "ed" sound to every word, causing pronunciations like "look-ed." In reality, there are three past tense sounds--/t/, /d/, and / d/--which are all represented by the letters "ed." The difference can be demonstrated to students by putting the following sets of words on the board.

1. walked, touched, fished, laughed
2. followed, lived, housed, flowered
3. graded, pointed, visited, faded

In all of these words, the past tense ending is made by adding "ed" to the root word. However, the words in the first line end with a /t/ sound, the words in the second line end with a /d/ sound, and the words in the third line end with an /d/ sound. The system is actually fairly simple once you know how it works. A /t/ is a voiceless sound, so words ending in another voiceless sound have the /t/ ending for the past tense. All words ending in a voiced sound use the voiced past

tense ending /d/. Words ending with either a /t/ or /d/ sound take the /d/ ending so that the two similar sounds are not confused. When students understand the rule, they can correct themselves.

Stress.

Every multisyllabic word in English has an accent stressing one syllable over the others. This causes the stressed syllable to be pronounced more slowly and clearly than the unstressed syllables. Therefore, if the stress is placed on the wrong syllable, it can make the word unintelligible. Say each word with the two pronunciations and see what a difference this shift of stress can make.

re-con-noi-ter	re-con-noi-ter
med-i-ca-tion	med-i-ca-tion
res-er-va-tion	res-er-va-tion

It is very difficult to predict where the accent will fall in English words. Therefore, the teacher must listen for accent errors and help the student correct them by practicing the correct model.

Rhythm.

Every language uses a rhythmic pattern in its sentences. There are two general rhythmic patterns used in the world's languages: syllable timing and stress timing. Languages like Spanish, Japanese, and Tagalog use syllable timing. All syllables are of about equal length. Therefore, sentences with an equal number of syllables can be spoken in the same amount of time. English, on the other hand, is a stress-timed language. Stress still occurs at regular rhythmic intervals, but only important syllables are stressed. Then the remaining syllables, no matter how many there are, must fit into the set rhythm. The more unstressed syllables there are between stressed syllables, the more rapidly and indistinctly the unstressed syllables are pronounced. For instance, it would take about the same amount of time to say the following sentences because they both have three stressed syllables.

DON'T DRIVE FAST.
My FAther used to TAKE us for a DRIVE.

In learning a new language, students often superimpose the rhythm of their native language on to the sentences they are learning. Many teachers find clapping out the rhythm of a sentence helps students focus on the way words are grouped in English.

Intonation.

The meaning of a sentence can be altered by changing the intonation pattern. Simple statements usually end with the voice rising then falling on the last word. This is demonstrated by the lines superimposed on the following sentence.

The store is on the /corner.

Questions that can be answered by yes or no usually end with the voice rising.

The store is on the corner?

But questions that ask for information have the same pattern as a simple statement.

Where is the /store?

Another common variation is a change in the statement intonation pattern in order to emphasize or clarify specific information in the sentence.

What \is on the corner?
The /store \is on the corner.

Intonation is an important part of the meaning of a sentence. Sometimes beginning students need to practice a sentence in segments

before they can manage the whole sentence. Retain the intonation pattern used in the whole sentence as the segments are practiced.

Conclusion.

Pronunciation is an element of all language teaching. Students often know where their pronunciation problems are because people will misunderstand their message or even laugh at their errors. They need your help to correct those problems that cause recurring difficulty in making themselves understood when they speak. Pronunciation problems often require long and repeated work because one is training both the mouth and the brain to use the new language.

IX. LANGUAGE LEARNING GAMES AND ACTIVITIES

Language learning games are excellent instructional tools--they reinforce the learning objectives for the class sessions and provide the change of pace so essential in a language lesson. When selecting a game or activity, keep in mind the cultural and physical constraints of your class. For instance, a class of quiet, matronly women may be unwilling to have pictures and names pinned to their backs. Members of a very small class may be too self-conscious to join a sing-along.

From this section you should be able to find some games and activities that will be appropriate for your class.

1. Cut pieces of colored paper into two sets of the same shape and color: circles, triangles, squares, etc. As the students come into class, pin a shape on each person's back. Students are instructed to ask yes or no questions in order to find out the shape and color of their paper. They then find the other person who has the matching paper. After the person has been located, the students ask each other a set of questions that the teacher has written on the chalkboard. This can lead to a review of color and shape names or further pair practice.

2. Play a variation of number 1 using the names of sets such as salt and pepper, bread and butter, pencil and paper, or cup and saucer. The name of one member of the set is pinned on each student's back. Students circulate around the room asking yes or no questions to find out the name of the item. Then they locate the other member of the set. This can be followed by a pair activity--perhaps a questionnaire the students complete about their partners.

3. Instruct students to find one person who is similar in a prescribed way: a physical attribute (height, hair color, weight) dress, number of children, or occupation. This can then lead to a discussion of differences and similarities.

4. Pin the name of another student on each student's back. One by one, the students turn around showing the others "who they are." They then ask yes or no questions to determine their identity. Be sure to include your own name in the game.

5. Adapt the children's game "I Spy" to the classroom. The teacher starts by saying, "I see something in this room that starts with _____(a letter)." The students ask yes or no questions until the object is found. The successful student then assumes the role of the teacher.

6. Visit a place of common interest to expand students' vocabulary and expose them to places that could be useful--the drug store, the public library, or the fire station. This type of common experience can also serve as a springboard for other classroom examples and discussions.

7. Choose a half-hour television show the class can all watch. This should be a program with a straightforward story and limited linguistic subtlety that their children will also enjoy. Start discussion of the show with the basics--who are the characters? what are the relationships? what is the setting?--and continue on to the plot, cultural observations, and so forth.

8. Use flash cards in a variety of ways--for numbers, colors, letters of the alphabet, pictures, sets, and categories. Flash cards made from magazine pictures, particularly those that show a variety of ethnic groups, can be used again and again.

9. Read a series of five words to the class. Four of the words belong to a set, but the fifth word does not . For example: apple, orange, banana, cucumber, grapefruit; hand, arm, pants, chest, head. Students identify the word that does not belong to the set.

10. Write a sentence or a paragraph on a piece of light cardboard. Cut the sentence into words or the paragraph into sentences or phrases. Students arrange the pieces in the proper sequence. This task can be done by an individual, a pair, or a small group.

11. Adapt the childhood game "I Packed My Bag for Grandma's" to the classroom. The first person says, "I'm going on a trip, and I'm taking _____(a suitcase, an umbrella, a book, etc.)." The second person says, "I'm going on a trip and I'm taking _____and _____." Each person says all the items previously stated, then adds an additional item. The game can be modified by changing the

lead in: "Happiness is_____." "If I had a million dollars, I would_____." "I went to New York, and I saw_____."

12. Cut out cartoons or pictures without captions. Students hypothesize on the context of the situation and write the appropriate caption.

13. If you play the guitar or just like to sing, teach the students a song such as "Home on the Range," "Blowin' in the Wind," "Old MacDonald," or "She'll Be Comin' 'round the Mountain." Spend some time talking about the setting of the song, the characters, and the special message. Students will understand the words better if they read them as well as hear them, so provide a printed copy of the words. Also, lyrics provide interesting examples of grammatical patterns.

14. Have a student choose a recipe that can be made in the United States and show the class, with an appropriate explanation, how to prepare the recipe. Suggest either food from home or American cooking the class can afford. After the demonstration, everyone can taste the food. The project could culminate in a complete meal prepared by the class for a special occasion.

15. Create an information chart about the class members to provide a realistic way to practice making different types of questions.

Name	Country	Age	Married	Children	Height
Mary Stevens	U. S.	42	no	0	5'7"
Maria Gomez	Mexico	34	yes	3	5'4"
Suga Sato	Japan	26	yes	1	5'2"

Students can use the chart for a variety of tasks. They can ask other class members yes or no questions. "Is Maria Gomez a doctor?" "Does Suga Sato have children?" Or, they can ask questions that begin with who, what, where, how old, or how many. "Where is Suga from?" "How many children does Maria have?" Finally, they can play "Who am I?" In this game, a student thinks of one name on the chart. The other

students then ask questions to determine which name the student has selected. "Where do you live?" "Are you a doctor?" "How many children do you have?"

16. Build a chart for other types of information. For instance:

Business	Days open	Opens	Closes
U.S. Bank	M-F	9:00am	4:00pm
Johnson's Department Store	M-Sat	10:00am	9:00pm
Carson's Drug Store	Everyday	8:00am	10:00pm
Marshall's Restaurant	Tues-Sun	11:30am	9:30pm

17. Ask students to draw what you describe to them. This is particularly helpful when practicing the use of prepositions. "Draw a tree on the left side of your paper. Draw another tree on the right side. Draw a straight line from the branches of one tree to the branches of the other tree. Draw a man on the line. Draw an umbrella in the man's hand. Under the trees, draw some flowers. Over one tree, draw the sun."

18. Have students practice using the telephone by calling places with recorded messages (such as a bus station, movie theater, or post office).

X. PLANNING LESSONS

Lessons in an ESL class must be carefully thought out. Initially, students are completely dependent on the teacher, who decides what the students need to learn and how to present the material in an interesting, meaningful way.

In order to make the learning process manageable, students start by learning language skills that help them control the small world within the classroom. The class then becomes a laboratory where the language skills needed in the real world can be practiced and learned.

One goal of early lessons is to establish a class environment that promotes good learning. Classes should be informal and friendly. Students need to learn about each other and the teacher. Students should feel that their English class is a place where they can practice and experiment with their new language without fear of embarrassment.

Another goal is to familiarize students with the classroom--whether it is a living room, a church school room, or a classroom in a school or community center. Students should be able to name and manipulate the objects in this defined place so that class time can be used effectively.

When students can use English to talk about classroom experiences, the lessons can begin to focus on the English skills students need in the real world. Begin this task by listing what the students need to do in English in order to survive in the community. Although every list will be different, most will probably include:

1. Meeting Americans
2. Asking directions
3. Buying food and clothing
4. Seeking help from a doctor or police officer
5. Renting an apartment
6. Using public transportation
7. Making telephone calls

After making the list of language needs, develop lessons to help students accomplish these tasks.

Lesson Organization.

There are two main approaches to lesson organization. One is a self-contained lesson that does not rely on specific knowledge from previous lessons, although it does assume a general level of language ability for the class. The language learning objectives of the lesson are completed within the time available for one class. This is an ideal method if attendance is sporadic or if the class permits open enrollment with new students entering at any time. Model Lesson 6 is an example of a self-contained lesson.

Another approach builds one skill upon the other somewhat like building blocks. In this approach, lessons are sequential. The teacher takes several sessions to develop the skills needed to complete a particular language objective and review becomes a regular feature of each lesson. This works well if students attend class regularly.

Regardless of the approach used, planning a lesson involves definite steps.

1. Determine the essential tasks that students need to perform.
2. Define realistic learning objectives.
3. Set minimum objectives for the slower students but present enough material to challenge students who learn quickly.
4. List the props you will need for the lesson: pictures, real objects, photocopies, newsprint charts.
5. Determine appropriate methods and activities.
6. Organize activities into 10- to 20-minute segments ensuring variety in style and pace.
7. Select two exercises to keep in reserve in case there is extra class time.

Model Lessons.

Below are the first four lessons for a beginning level class. They can be used while additional lessons are being developed or while you wait for a textbook order to arrive. In addition, a sequential lesson (about using a post office) and a self-contained lesson (about family relationships) are included.

Model Lesson 1. (First in a series of four introductory lessons)

Objectives

Students will be able to:

*1. Introduce themselves to others
2. Know some information about their classmates
*3. Identify some classroom objects
4. Identify numbers from 0 to 9
5. Use possessive and subject pronouns

(*Indicates minimum objectives, although in these lessons the minimum is usually a matter of degree of mastery.)

Props

Name tags that say, "Hello, my name is_____.", large sheet of newsprint, felt tip pen, calendar, 3" x 5" cards with numbers 0 to 9 printed on them.

Activities

1. Name tags. Students and the teacher fill out name tags and wear them during the first class session.

2. Conversation chart. On a large sheet of paper, make a chart using the following categories: name, country, age, married, children, height. (See page 63.) Start by entering information about yourself for each category. Use short, simple sentences, "My name is_____." (Write name on chart.) "What's your name?" (Enter student's name.) Then ask questions about all the names.

"What's your name?" "What's her name?" "What's my name?" Follow the same procedure with the other categories.

3. Use TPR (see page 17) to begin introducing the students to their classroom using the verbs point, touch, and walk and the numbers 0 to 9.

4. Dialogue (see page 29): Greetings.

S1: Hello. My name is_____.

S2: Hi. My name is _____. I'm happy to meet you.

S1: Thanks.

5. Review information on the conversation chart.

6. Dialogue: Leave-taking.

S1: See you on _____at_____.

S2: OK, bye.

Show students on a calendar the date of the next session. Write the time on the chalkboard.

Model Lesson 2.

Objectives

Students will be able to:

*1. Introduce a friend

2. Identify classroom objects and colors

*3. Identify numbers from 10 to 20

4. Ask questions with who and questions about the class which can be answered with yes or no

(*Indicates minimum objectives.)

Props

Books, pencils, and boxes of various colors; 3" x 5" cards with numbers from 10 to 20; 3" x 5" cards for word cards.

Activities

1. Continue using the conversation chart. Review the information gathered during the previous lesson using

questions with who. "Who is from Colombia?" "Who is 32 years old?" Have students take turns asking questions beginning with who.

2. Ask questions that can be answered with yes or no. Use the chart as the basis for these questions. "Is Maria from Colombia?" "Am I married?" "Are you 25?" In pairs, the students practice asking each other this type of question.

3. Demonstrate word order for statements and questions by using word cards. (See page 44.) Show how the word order changes by physically moving the cards. Let students practice moving the cards. Demonstrate the use of the various subject pronouns and the forms of the verb to be.

4. Use TPR to continue teaching about the classroom. Add numbers from 10 to 20 using number cards. Teach colors by using colored books or pencils. Add verbs: put and give.

5. Dialogue: Introductions.

S1: __Suga__ this is __Maria__.

S2: I'm happy to meet you.

S1: Thanks. I'm happy to meet you, too.

6. Students ask each other questions about class members. "Is Suga from Mexico?" "Who is 34?" "Are you married?"

7. Dialogue: Leave-taking.

S1: See you later.

S2: OK, bye.

Model Lesson 3.

Objectives

Students will be able to:

1. Ask questions about classmates using the verb to be
*2. Make yes or no responses using short answers
*3. Make a simple request
4. Identify numbers from 20 to 99

5. Identify some parts of the body

6. Answer questions about height and length

(*Indicates minimum objectives.)

Props

Cards with numbers by tens, tape measure, yardstick, ruler, paper, pins, and pictures of police officer, ambulance, fire fighter, fire truck, telephone.

Activities

1. Game (see page 56, number 4). In this game, the teacher pins a piece of paper with the name of another student on each student's back. Each student shows the paper to the class and tries to discover what the name on the paper is by asking questions that can be answered with yes or no. The other students answer by using the short answer form, "Yes, you are.", or "No, you aren't."

2. Dialogue: Making a request.

S1: Please give me the ___dictionary___.

S2: Here you are.

S1: Thank you very much.

Practice this dialogue in unison. Then have students request other items in the room using the words they have been learning in the TPR sessions.

3. Use TPR to review objects in the classroom. Begin learning parts of the body. Also teach the words--police officer, ambulance, fire fighter, fire truck, and telephone. Add verbs: open, close, pass, and write.

4. Measure the height of each student and record it on the conversation chart. Ask the question: "How tall is ___ _____?" Then measure other items in the classroom. Each time ask the appropriate question. "How high is the door?" "How long is this book?" Divide students into small groups and have them determine the answers to questions about

height and length such as "How tall is Paula?" "How long is the table?" "How high is the door?"

5. Dialogue: Leave-taking.

S1: Take care now.

S2: OK. Good-bye.

Model Lesson 4.

Objectives

Students will be able to:

***1.** State and ask for telephone numbers

***2.** State and ask for addresses

***3.** Know what emergency numbers to use for help from the fire department, police department, and ambulance service

4. Request emergency assistance from police, fire department, or ambulance

5. Understand that in the United States help is usually available quickly for emergencies

(*Indicates minimum objectives.)

Props

Large sheet of newsprint, photocopies of the emergency page from the telephone book.

Activities

1. Create a new conversation chart with columns for name, address, and telephone number. Have students ask questions about other students' addresses and telephone numbers.

2. Dialogue: Requesting information.

S1: What's your address/telephone number?

S2: _____.

S1: Please write it down.

S2: Here you are.

S1: Thank you.

3. Use TPR to continue teaching the parts of the body. Add the verbs: show, erase, and pick up.

4. Give each student a photocopy of the emergency page from the telephone book. Talk about why one calls emergency numbers.

5. Dialogue: Requesting information.

S1: What's the number for the police?

S2: _____.

S1: Thanks.

6. Monologue: Requesting assistance.

S1: Hello. Police?/Fire Department?
This is _____.
I need help.
I am at _____.
I don't speak English.
Please come now.

Model Lesson 5. Sequential Lesson

Objectives

Students will be able to:

***1.** Correctly address an envelope and package

2. Compare the zip code system with postal zoning in their countries

***3.** Complete a change of address form

4. Describe the location of a nearby post office

***5.** Negotiate the purchase of stamps, aerograms, postcards, and mailing envelopes

6. Use the postage chart

7. Understand information about the hours the post office is open from a recorded telephone message

(*Indicates minimum objectives.)

Props

Stamps, two envelopes for each student, book of stamps, aerogram, change-of-address form for each student, postcard, photocopies of a postage chart for half the students, mock letters and aerograms addressed to different countries, large sheet of newsprint, felt tip pen, map of the city, letter with yellow forwarding sticker, mock letters of different weights, and two small packages addressed to two different parts of the United States.

Preteaching

In an earlier lesson, introduce the following vocabulary items: stamp, envelope, aerogram, postcard, package, address, tape, line, weigh. (Page 19 indicates how this can be accomplished using TPR.)

Activities

Session 1. Prepare for a visit to a post office

1. Address an envelope. Give everyone an envelope. Ask students to address the envelope to a family member outside the United States. Be sure that everyone can write the address and the return address properly. Give students a second envelope. Write a U.S. address on the chalkboard. Have students address the second envelope. Compare the different addresses including the zip code system. Compare the zip code system with postal systems in the students' home countries.

2. Dialogue: Locating the post office.

On the table, put a map on which the location of a nearby post office has been marked. Write a dialogue on the chalkboard.

S1: Where's the post office?

S2: It's on the corner of Fourth and Pine.

S1: Can I walk there?

S2: Yes, it's about five minutes from here/ No, it's too far. (See page 29.)

3. Class discussion about the functions of a post office. Put a big piece of newsprint on the wall. Ask the class the following question: "What can you do at a post office?" Write their answers on the paper.

4. Pattern drill. Practice making requests using a substitution drill. (See page 26.)

Teacher:	**Class:**
I want to buy a stamp.	I want to buy a stamp.
an aerogram	I want to buy an aerogram.
five	I want to buy five aerograms.
postcards	I want to buy five postcards.

Continue using the names of items that can be purchased at a post office. Use only items related to the functions the students have identified in activity number 3 above.

5. Complete a change-of-address form. Give everyone a change-of-address form. Discuss the reasons for the form. Show the class a letter with a yellow forwarding sticker. Then complete the change-of-address form together.

6. Read the postage chart. Give half of the students photocopies of the postage chart. Bring in mock letters, postcards, and aerograms addressed to different parts of the world. In pairs, students use the postage chart to find out how much each item would cost to mail.

7. Telephone listening. Before the next class, ask students to telephone the post office telephone number and listen to the recorded message in order to find the answers to the following questions. (See page 59.) Let the questions serve as a dictation exercise. (See page 22.)

What days is the post office open?
What time does the post office open?
When does it close?
Is the post office open on Saturday?

Session 2. A visit to a post office

Before the session, ask students to be ready to perform a task at the post office: buy stamps, mail an overseas letter, mail a package, find a zip code, etc.

1. Investigate the post office. Ask students to look around the post office at the customers and the displays. First, have them look for the services that were listed in the last lesson. Then ask them to look for items and services they had not listed. They should observe: padded mailing envelopes, express mail, money orders, registered letters. Help the students make a list of the items and their cost.

2. Use the zip code directory. Show students the zip code directory. Look up three or four addresses and find the correct zip code.

3. Prepare a package. Demonstrate how to prepare a package using wrapping paper and strong tape. A postal clerk may be willing to demonstrate. Show them how to address the package.

4. Use the post office. Give students time to mail their letters, buy stamps, etc. Allow time to answer all questions.

Session 3. Wrap-up

1. Post office services. Add to the services and items listed on the newsprint.

2. Game (see page 56). I went to the post office and I bought_____.

3. Role play. One student is the postal clerk, the other the customer. The customer chooses a piece of paper that indicates an item to buy at a post office. Items can include: five 22¢ stamps, ten postcards, three aerograms, one large mailing envelope, a book of stamps. The customer must then negotiate the transaction with the postal clerk who must figure price.

4. Summary dictation. (See page 24.)

Model Lesson 6. Self-contained Lesson

Objectives

Students will be able to:

*1. Describe close family relationships

*2. Ask and answer questions with how many

3. Describe some physical attributes of family members

(*Indicates minimum objectives.)

Props

Pictures of the teacher's family or the family of a close friend or relative--husband, wife, mother, father, son, daughter; family tree chart for each student; large sheets of newsprint; felt tip pens.

Activities

1. Show students a picture of your immediate family--spouse, son, daughter--or a picture of a family close to you. Tell the class about each person in the picture. Write key words on a piece of newsprint leaving space to record information about other family members in the picture.

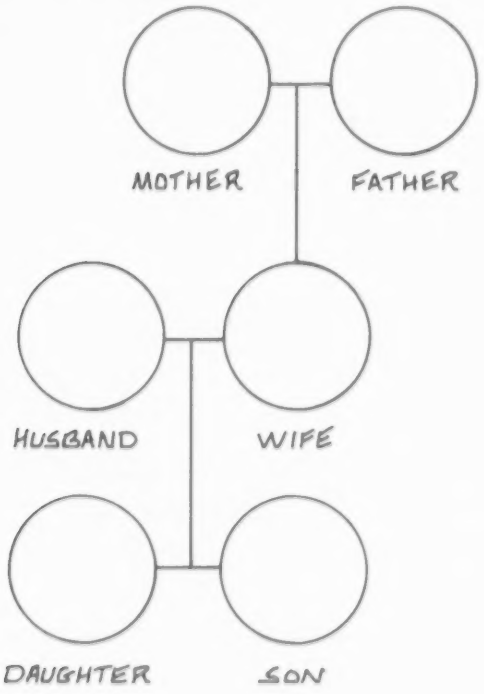
Mrs. Johnson

This is my husband.	husband	daughter
His name is Bob.	Bob	
He's 47 years old.	47	
He's an artist.	artist	
He has brown hair.	brown hair	
He likes to play tennis.	plays tennis	

Ask students about their spouses using the same set of questions and recording the information on sheets of paper.

2. In pairs, students ask and answer questions about their family members using relationship names--husband, wife, son, daughter.

3. Draw a family tree on the chalkboard for your family. As you fill in each circle, show the class a picture of that person.



Have students draw their own family trees.

4. In pairs or small groups, have students ask each other questions with how many? "How many sons do you have?" "How many daughters does Suga have?"

5. Prepare a paragraph about a picture of your immediate family. Ask students to listen to the paragraph while looking for the answers to specific questions.
(See page 21.)

6. Wrap-up. Students review the lesson by asking each other questions about family members.

XI. TEACHING INTERMEDIATE AND ADVANCED STUDENTS

Although the focus of this book is on classes for beginning-level and low intermediate students, some teachers may need suggestions on how to work with more advanced students. Intermediate and advanced students are usually interested in developing more complex communication skills so that they can discuss ideas, analyze information, and compare cultures.

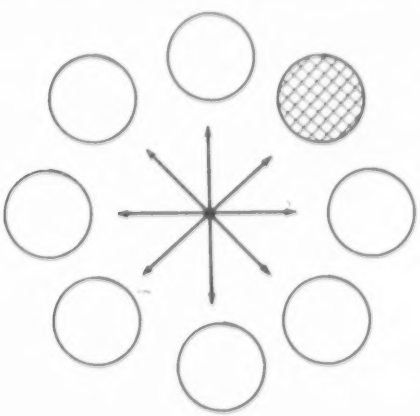
Students at this level should be able to tell you what subjects they are interested in and how they want to explore these areas. Teachers can then develop units around the special interests of the class. Classes should continue to focus on listening and speaking skills although some background reading may be appropriate.

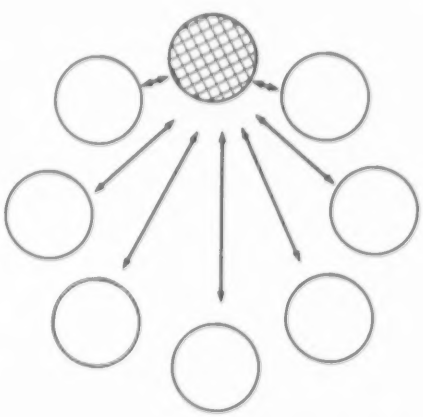
Areas that may interest students include:

1. News and current events
2. Special needs of children
3. Cooking and nutrition
4. Cross-cultural comparisons
5. Art and music in the United States

After the class has agreed on several topics, the teacher can develop units that promote learning through group activities and lively discussion. There are three key ingredients to a discussion class: a body of shared information, exercises to help students understand unfamiliar words and concepts, and provocative questions and exercises that stimulate class discussion.

Teachers should try to remove themselves from class discussions as much as possible. Class interaction should look like this.....rather than this.





There are many techniques that can be used successfully in your ESL sessions.

Brainstorming.

Students offer as many suggestions and ideas as they can think of on a specific topic. Ideas are neither evaluated nor discussed until all suggestions are written down. For instance, the class can be asked to name the most important problems facing the world today. As the students name the problems, the teacher writes them on the chalkboard or on a piece of newsprint.

Rank Ordering.

Students order a set of items by their importance, the most important item being first. The class could rank order the items listed in their brainstorming activity on important problems facing the world today. In order to promote maximum student participation, teachers should attempt to keep their viewpoints out of the class discussion. If the teacher's view is expressed, students tend to see it as authoritative. There are no right solutions in this type of exercise, only a solution that can be agreed upon by the students.

Reaching Consensus.

The class is presented with a set of alternative solutions to a specific problem. They must decide, as a group, on the "best" solution. Here is an example.

You are riding on the bus. You see a thief take a passenger's wallet. You should:

1. Shout "Thief!" and point to the person.
2. Look carefully at the person and then give the description to the police.
3. Tell the passenger as soon as the thief leaves the bus.
4. Report the theft to the driver.
5. Say nothing, but be careful not to be robbed yourself.
6. Attack the thief and try to get the wallet back.

This type of exercise also lends itself to cross-cultural discussion. The best solution in Cairo may be foolish in New York.

Speakers.

Ask your friends to speak to the class on a topic of interest. A short slide show and talk about a local picnic spot, a nearby historical monument, or a short nature hike could encourage students to explore their community as well as provide a good language learning experience. A speaker could also demonstrate craft ideas such as simple Christmas tree decorations or Valentine's Day cards, thus combining language skills with cultural information. Speakers provide an added benefit--students have an opportunity to listen to different voices and accents.

Tours.

Foreign visitors want to learn about the United States and the communities in which they live. A tour through a local art gallery, church, or historical site exposes students to new settings and new vocabulary. Wherever possible, have an appropriate expert lead the tour, but tell the tour leader in advance that your students are still learning English.

Television and Video Recordings.

Television offers many interesting documentaries. Students can agree to watch the same program and then discuss what they have seen. If the teacher has a video cassette recorder, a program could be taped for later viewing with the class. By using a videotape, the teacher can stop and repeat sections that may be confusing to students.

Questionnaires.

Teachers can develop questionnaires that help students understand some aspect of American culture. For instance, many foreign visitors are appalled because old people in the United States do not live with their children. The goal of a questionnaire on this subject would be to help students understand the importance of independence in American

culture. Students could question Americans about when young people leave home and where most people want to live when they are old. Students can then report their findings to the class.

Newspaper and Magazine Articles.

Look for news stories that contain an element of controversy--a story on the consequences of bilingual education or possible solutions to the problems of people living on the street. Sometimes the editorial pages of the newspaper present opposing views side-by-side. Students can read the articles, learn new vocabulary, and discuss the issues involved. In choosing appropriate articles, be sensitive to the cultural differences of your students. An article discussing conflict in the Middle East may prove to be too divisive for productive discussion.

Information presented simply can often be found in magazines developed for school children at the grade five to eight level. New Readers Press, a division of Laubach Literacy Action, publishes a simplified newspaper News For You for language learners and new readers. A class could order this weekly newspaper. Each class set comes with an exercise guide filled with ideas that really work.

Oral Reports.

Reports work best when the class agrees on a theme. Then each student prepares a report that contributes to the subject. For instance, students could present reports on the educational systems of their respective countries. A more involved project might require each student to find out about a different community resource--a family counseling service, the emergency room at a hospital, a legal aid clinic, the Red Cross, Meals on Wheels, a public library--then report their findings to the class. In this type of exercise, students need some general questions to help them focus their research.

In working with intermediate and advanced students, many of the principles of second language acquisition discussed in Chapter II

still apply--keep the class student-centered, vary the activities, and let the language learning be incidental to some other task that students want to complete. When students use their new language in creative ways, they develop confidence in their language ability and increase their understanding of the United States, its language, and its people.

XII. MATERIALS SELECTION

A good textbook is important for successful language instruction. Most volunteer teachers have neither the time nor the expertise for extensive materials preparation. Use your creativity to develop supplemental materials, but rely on an appropriate text to determine the basic lessons.

Students prefer owning a text. They like the security of a textbook--a book to take home, a book that shows them what they will learn in the weeks ahead. Deciding which book your class should use can sometimes be difficult.

There are many excellent ESL books on the market, but some of these books do not meet the needs of volunteer teachers or their particular students. An excellent book for academically bound students may be inappropriate for students in your class.

Textbooks appropriate for classes taught by volunteer teachers should include the following features:

1. Lessons that focus on communication needs in real life settings such as a supermarket, a doctor's office, or a post office
2. Lessons designed for adults
3. An approach that stresses listening and speaking skills
4. Exercises that call on students to relate what they have learned to their specific situation
5. A clear attractive format with extensive visuals that enhance the understanding of the lessons
6. A detailed teacher's guide with clear, jargon-free explanations, supplemental exercises, and helpful suggestions on how to teach the prepared lesson
7. Sensitive treatment of cultural differences that helps students adapt to U.S. cultural and social conventions without undermining the students' cultural identity
8. Grammatical structures adapted to the level of the students
9. Activities that use a variety of language-learning techniques

10. A self-contained text that does not rely on expensive workbooks or audiotapes

11. A recent publication date

12. A moderate purchase price

No single text will meet all your needs, but you can make a best choice. To help in this process, a cross section of current texts that are appropriate for most volunteer programs are reviewed at the end of this section. The list is by no means exhaustive, and many excellent books may not be included. In addition, each year new textbooks and newly revised books appear on the market, so this list will soon be out of date. However, you can make your own evaluation of any textbook using the 12 criteria listed above.

The list is divided into three categories: core texts, supplemental texts, and resource books. A core text is a comprehensive, self-contained book that students buy and use in almost every class session. A supplemental text is a secondary book that students buy to address special needs such as reading and writing skills. A resource book is used by the teacher to supplement the material in the core or supplemental text. A group of teachers may be able to share a resource book.

When you are ready to consider textbook selection, write the major ESL publishers requesting a current catalog and ordering information. (Addresses for many publishers begin on page 87.) Your university book store may be willing to order the books on consignment. Then students can purchase textbooks from the store. An order can also be placed directly with the publisher on a prepaid basis.

Since most volunteer programs are not subsidized, materials costs must be kept at a minimum. You may be able to borrow appropriate resource books from the university library. Many intensive ESL programs have a small reference library that you may be able to use. If necessary, a modest materials fee could be collected from the students to cover the cost of the teacher's edition, resource books, and occasional photocopying.

Annotated Bibliography

Core Texts.

Blosser, Betsy J. English for Adult Living. Book One. Silver Spring, Md.: Institute of Modern Languages, Inc., 1979.

Primarily a teacher's guide with numerous suggestions for classroom activities but limited visuals. Oral approach concentrates on listening and speaking skills for beginners. Community and consumer topics--grocery shopping, arranging housing, and schools--are introduced. Structures simple and dialogues authentic.

Blosser, Betsy J. English for Adult Living. Book Two. Silver Spring, Md.: Institute of Modern Languages, Inc., 1979.

Designed for advanced beginning students. Further develops ESL by using additional practical, day-to-day situations encountered by adult foreign visitors to the United States--buying a car, community services, health services. Graphics mostly depict speakers rather than giving clues to language meaning.

Carver, Tina Kasloff, and Fotinos, Sandra Douglas. A Conversation Book: English in Everyday Life. Book 1. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1985.

Useful book for heterogeneous group of students from varied national or educational backgrounds who may be at different levels of language proficiency. Contains enormous amount of information with broad scope. Labeled as beginning level, but not recommended for students with no previous exposure to English. Sensitive treatment of cultural differences. Attractive layout and illustrations.

Corley, Mary Ann, and Coyle, Joseph M. Speak English! Functional American English for the Modern World. Text One. Silver Spring, Md.: Institute of Modern Languages, Inc., 1980.

Practical subject matter relevant to beginning level adult students. Emphasizes oral language, although some exercises ask

students to write shopping lists, telephone numbers, daily schedules, etc. Teacher's notes truncated and too brief. Page format attractive and accessible. Effective treatment of cross-cultural considerations.

Corley, Mary Ann, and Coyle, Joseph M. Speak English! Functional American English for the Modern World. Text Two. Lincolnwood, Ill.: National Textbook Company, 1985.

Second book in six-volume Speak English series. Oral skill builders such as dialogues and role plays require students to generate language immediately. Contains same features as Text One, including culture notes and teacher's notes. Some writing assignments including crossword puzzles and word mazes.

Defilippo, Judy, and Walker, Michael. Lifeskills 1. New Horizons in English. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1982.

Clear, attractive format. Intended for beginning adult ESL students. Most pages self-explanatory, but notes to teacher limited. Basic grammatical structures for shopping, using the telephone, finding housing, etc. Workbook format requires reading and writing. Difficult to use unless each student has a book.

Defilippo, Judy, and Walker, Michael. Lifeskills 2. New Horizons in English. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1982.

Second volume of Lifeskills series progresses to further everyday life situations. Teachers encouraged to expand lessons, but little guidance given. Good introduction to American life, but little attention paid to cultural differences.

Ferreira, Linda. Notion by Notion: Beginning ESL Practice Book. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1981.

Intended for elementary/intermediate ESL students. Extensive variety of pertinent everyday topics covered. Self-contained units can be used in any order to suit needs of students. Language chart summary for each unit. Exercises require writing, but could be

readily adapted to oral presentation. Good cultural sensitivity. Limited guidance for teacher.

Keltner, Autumn; Howard, Leann; and Lee, Frances. Basic English for Adult Competency. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1983.

Designed for students with little or no English. Student book uses only visuals to present functional topics such as clothing, food, and health. Separate teacher's guide provides vocabulary, structures, dialogues, suggested teaching activities, and reproduction of each page of student text. Particularly useful for illiterate students or those unfamiliar with the Latin alphabet.

Keltner, Autumn; Howard, Leann; and Lee, Frances. English for Adult Competency. Book I. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1981.

Lively, clearly illustrated basic guide. Lessons carefully focus on real-life adult situations. Particularly helpful suggestions to teacher on how to use the visuals. Aimed primarily at developing listening and speaking skills of adults who have had little or no previous instruction in English. Good introduction to American life, but teacher will have to provide cross-cultural focus.

Keltner, Autumn, and Bitterlin, Gretchen. English for Adult Competency. Book II. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1981.

Successor volume to preceding entry. Intended for students at advanced beginning level. Good visuals. Lessons oriented to day-to-day survival situations. Useful recommendations for teachers. Contains all the strengths of Book I.

Mosteller, Lee, and Paul, Bobbi. Survival English: English Through Conversations. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1985.

Very basic student book focuses on survival situations. Illustrates how to print alphabet and numbers. Many exercises require writing skills, but could easily be adapted to oral presentation.

Graphics do not always enhance understanding of lesson. Separate teacher's guide includes many suggestions for supplementary activities.

Supplemental Texts.

Carver, Tina Kasloff; Fotinos, Sandra Douglas; and Olson, Christie Kay. A Writing Book: English in Everyday Life. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1982.

Book begins with chapter on alphabet formation. Subsequent chapters include practice on formats for letters, applications, and medical and postal forms. All lessons focus on essential writing skills. Teacher's notes and follow-up activities are included in each unit. Lessons include class, pair, and individual activities, but workbook style permits use by individual students who want additional writing practice.

Motta, Janice C., and Riley, Kathryn. Impact! Adult Literacy and Language Skills. Book One. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1982.

Student book includes practice in word recognition skills, simple reading and writing, sentence/picture matching, and symbol/sound correspondence. Sight-word approach used to teach survival topics and practical vocabulary of high interest to adults. Material at grade two reading level. Separate teacher's guide provides step-by-step directions on how to use book, supplemental activities, and answer key.

Motta, Janice C., and Riley, Kathryn L. Impact! Adult Reading and Language Skills. Book Two. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1982.

Second volume in three-book Impact series focuses on decision-making and consumer choices using store coupons, classified advertisements, catalog orders, and time tables. Continues building skills of Book One. Also helps students develop skills of inference,

generalization, and conclusion. Material written at grade four reading level. Separate teacher's guide provides teaching suggestions, supplemental activities, and answer key.

Parnwell, E.C. Oxford Picture Dictionary of American English. New York: Oxford University Press, 1978.

Picture dictionary for adults with about 2,000 illustrated words. Pictures are either scenes or individual objects. All items clearly labeled. Index of all words with pronunciation guide. Enlargements of some pages are available as wall charts.

Rooks, George. Can't Stop Talking. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.,1983.

Carefully developed text promotes class discussion for advanced beginning and intermediate students. Twenty-four simulation exercises require group consensus and rank-ordering tasks. Units include essential background information, vocabulary development, and follow-up questions.

Wigfield, Jack. First Steps in Reading and Writing. Gateway to English. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1982.

Workbook for students developing English literacy skills. Lessons progress slowly using letter formation, word separation, simple dialogues, single word dictation, copying, and completion tasks. Separate teacher's guide explains rationale behind each type of exercise and provides text for dictations and dialogue variations. Because book is highly repetitive, many exercises could be completed without supervision.

Resource Books.

Frank, Marcella. Modern English: A Practical Reference Guide. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972.

Guide explains intricacies of English grammar including features that native speakers know instinctively but have difficulty

explaining. Reference format easy to use. Extensive use of examples helps teachers explain grammatical rules.

Grenough, Millie. English: Sing It. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1976.

Thirty-nine folk songs presented with words, melody line, and guitar chords. Songs organized by communicative or grammatical function. Each song has brief introduction and illustration. Songs include "My Bonnie," "This Land Is Your Land," and "Swing Low," as well as "Yellow Submarine," "You've Got a Friend;" and "Yesterday."

Macdonald, Marion, and Rogers-Gordon, Sue. Action Plans: 80 Student-centered Language Activities. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1984.

Extensive list of classroom activities organized by type (games, pictures and drawing, theater techniques, etc.) and level (beginning, intermediate, and advanced). Grammatical index shows which lessons reinforce particular grammatical patterns. Activities are creative, clearly described, and easy to develop.

Selected ESL Publishers

Addison-Wesley Publishing Company
South St.
Reading, MA 01876
(617) 944-3700

Alemany Press
(A division of Janus Book Publishers, Inc.)
2501 Industrial Pkwy. West Dept RB3
Haywood, CA 94545
(800) 227-2375
(Their catalog includes texts from Pergamon Press.)

Cambridge University Press
32 East 57th St.
New York, NY 10022
(800) 431-1580

Collier-MacMillan International
866 Third Ave.
New York, NY 10022
(800) 354-9815

Harcourt Brace Jovanovich
757 Third Ave.
New York, NY 10017
(800) 543-1918

Institute of Modern Languages
2622 Pittman Dr.
Silver Spring, MD 20910
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